# The Nation.

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## The Week.

The Senate has, following the House, taken its leap into the dark, and the cry of the leading Republican organ is, "For Heaven's sake, let the conference committee put some revenue duties into the bill!" What conference committees usually put into tariff bills is jobs, not revenue; but the confessed exigencies of the situation are certainly greater this year than ever before. Such ludicrously varying estimates of revenue were never before made by the different cooks that have been spoiling the broth. Mr. Dingley said his bill would produce $269,000,000. Not so, said Mr. Aldrich, it will produce only $159,000,000; and he added $23,000,000 more to get his total estimate of $182,000,000. Mr. Allison knocked off the $23,000,000, but still asserted, though with confessed qualms, that the bill would yield $180,000,000. The only apparent motive for his choosing that figure was the desire to show that the new bill would at least surpass the Wilson tariff, which produced in the last fiscal year $176,000,000 from customs duties. Even so, the bill as it passed the Senate being substantially the Dingley bill, Mr. Allison is at variance with Mr. Dingley in his estimates only a little matter of $89,000,000. The funniest thing of all is, however, that Mr. Dingley now agrees with Senator Allison, but he explains this as a result of the "delay" in the Senate's action. But he cannot save his reputation as an expert in that way. He committed himself to the prediction that the effect of delay beyond May 1 would be a loss of "$1,000,000 to $2,000,000 of revenue for each week." Calling it $2,000,000 a week, we have had a delay of not over ten weeks, which would mean a loss of $20,000,000, thus leaving $69,000,000 of the difference between Senator Allison and Mr. Dingley still unaccounted for, except on the theory that the latter did not know what he was talking about. The conclusion of the whole matter is that this "most scientific tariff bill ever constructed" is a hopeless mess as a revenue measure.

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Secretary Gage has made a most impolitic proposition to prevent the Sugar Trust from getting a profit of $12,000,000 to $16,000,000 out of tariff legislation. It was highly indiscreet to call attention to this state of affairs at all. Everybody knew, of course, that the Trust was going to make $16,000,000, but why blurt it out? Has Mr. Gage no dread of the way this will sound on the Western stump? He feebly says that it is "only a business proposition" for the Government to take this money instead of the Trust. This could be done, no doubt, by an internal-revenue tax, as the Secretary proposes, but Congressmen see fatal objections to this course, though a plain business man would never dream of them. In the first place, it would cause more "delay"; it would be "contentious matter" which Senators would want to talk about. Besides, it is too late now. Why didn't Mr. Gage think of all this before? Furthermore, the sugar schedule is all settled, and the Trust had a majority of only two votes; who knows but it would turn round and defeat the whole bill if its profits were now to be threatened? Foolish Mr. Gage to stir up this question and imagine that "business propositions" were the thing to lay before Congress. It was a business proposition which Mr. Cleveland laid before Congress to save $16,000,000 in interest by writing the word "gold" in bonds, and the way that was hooted out of the halls of legislation should have been a warning against supposing that anything more of that kind would be welcome there.

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At the present juncture in the coal-miners' strike the *Tribune's* Washington correspondent produces a theory that all the trouble lies in the Wilson tariff. "It was in December, 1893," he says, "that the Congress which framed the Wilson tariff law met, and the work upon the bill which reduced the coal tariff 35 cents per ton was begun. It was promised that that bill should take the entire duty off coal, and, as framed by the ways and means committee and passed by the House, it did place coal upon the free list. The Senate, however, restored a part of the duty on coal, making the rate 40 cents per ton, and the bill when it became a law reduced the tariff rate on bituminous coal by 35 cents a ton, the rate under the McKinley law having been 75 cents a ton." Turning to the statistical abstract of the United States for 1896, we find that in 1892, under the blessed McKinley tariff of 75 cents per ton, we imported 1,331,964 tons of bituminous coal, and that in no year since the Wilson tariff went into operation have we imported so large a quantity, the importation in 1896 having been only 1,243,000 tons. In the latter year, however, we exported 2,246,000 tons of bituminous and 1,394,000 tons of anthracite—3,640,000 tons in all, against 2,508,000 tons of both kinds under the blessed McKinley tariff. So it appears that the tariff worked the wrong way in both cases. It is a great mystery. The only treatise that can adequately explain it is Grosvenor's 'Does Protection Protect?'

The Senate committee on foreign affairs intimates that it has ready another "strong report" on the case of an American imprisoned in Cuba. This is intended to "force the President's hand," or, at the worst (and this is most likely), bring on another "lively Cuban debate." We certainly need another debate of that kind to steady the stock market and hurry up prosperity. It would be deadly to so much as whisper currency reform in the Senate—that might strangle prosperity in its very cradle; but a loud call for war is just what we need to restore confidence and raise wages. What we wonder at, however, is that it does not occur to the Senate to pay these Cuban indemnities out of its own undistributed Cuban money. There is still, we understand, some $40,000 on hand out of that $50,000 voted in the dark for the relief of Americans in Cuba. Our consuls have made heroic efforts to find the Americans and spend the $10,000 drawn by Consul-General Lee; they have "relieved" several of their own employees, with many native Cubans, and, in one case credibly reported, a Chinaman; but a large balance remains in spite of all they can do. Why not use this money to pay the indemnity to Richelieu and Bolton, whose claim Lodge wants the President to collect by force? Otherwise it may remain indefinitely unexpended, or even covered back into the Treasury—either alternative something frightful to think of in the case of public money.

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An address to their American "compatriots" was some time ago adopted by the Hawaiian branches of the Sons of the American Revolution, the Sons of Veterans, and the Grand Army of the Republic, and is now published in this country. It is of interest as stating the arguments in favor of annexation in their boldest form. In the first place, San Francisco, Honolulu, and Unalaska form an equilateral triangle. We infer from this that whenever an equilateral triangle can be constructed having two of its angles in the United States, the third angle, according to the Monroe Doctrine, must necessarily be included within our territory. To the astrological reasons implied in "manifest destiny," we may now add those of a geometrical character which are not only more comprehensible but also more conclusive. In the second place, spectacular considerations demand that the United States should be in possession of the Sandwich Islands. Mr. Seward announced thirty years ago that the Pacific Ocean, with its shores, its islands, and "the vast regions beyond," was to become the chief theatre of events in the world's great hereafter. Of course, the Yankee race

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will want to see this future show, and if Hawaii is going to furnish them front seats, the sooner they are engaged the better. No one can tell when the curtain will begin to rise on the world's great hereafter; but it must be said that the Pacific Ocean is not yet so interesting as the Atlantic and the surrounding countries. Thirdly, there has been a movement in Hawaii to abolish the contract system of labor, and introduce profit-sharing as well as the importation of industrious farmers from the United States, and the benevolent purposes of those engaged in this movement will be abandoned unless annexation is carried out. Finally, if the United States does not "grab" the islands, the Japanese will. They already outnumber the Americans greatly, they are increasing rapidly, they are fitted for the climate and its industries, and their destiny is so much more manifest than ours that it will prevail if we delay any longer. The presentation of these reasons should appeal forcibly to the sense of justice which distinguishes the American people.

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The Iowa Democrats who believe in Democratic principles held a State convention last week, and put a ticket in the field for the November election. It is the first convention for such a purpose to meet since McKinley's inauguration, and it will deservedly attract the attention of the whole country. The end of the Presidential campaign left the Bryanites in full control of the Democratic machinery. The new managers have recently made the surrender to Populism complete by joining that organization and the "Silver Republicans" in the nomination of a fusion State ticket on the Chicago platform. No sooner was this done than the Democrats who possess convictions resolved to hold a convention and make a campaign for a ticket and a platform which would deserve their support. The gathering was held at Des Moines, and it was notable for the presence of men of principle from all parts of the State who have been leaders in their sections. The ticket nominated includes the names of two men who were elected by the Democrats as Railway Commissioner and Superintendent of Public Instruction four years ago, another who was the party's candidate for Governor two years ago, and a fourth who has been chosen a District Judge by the Democracy in the past. All five are men of approved Democracy, while of the five on the fusion ticket two have been Republicans and another a Populist. The Indianapolis platform of last year was the basis of the declaration of principles adopted.

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The business men of Philadelphia are stirred up over the discovery of a characteristic exhibition of contempt for their interests by the "Government" of the State of Pennsylvania. For several months the Republican leaders in the Legislature talked about passing what was known as the "Bliss beer bill," but the matter dropped out of sight toward the end of the session. Since adjournment it has been discovered that, during the closing hours, after three readings and final passage in the House and two readings in the Senate of the "Bliss beer bill," the measure was completely and radically altered, so as to change it from a bill providing for the imposition of a tax upon beer, ale, and porter to one imposing a mercantile license tax, enormously in excess of the present tax, and inflicting upon the merchants of the State a serious burden, without giving the class affected an opportunity to be heard. The bill was not even brought to the notice of Philadelphia merchants until it had passed the Legislature and was in the hands of the Governor. Representatives of twenty-five commercial organizations have held a meeting to petition him to veto it, "thus preventing the imposition upon our merchants of a burden which would seriously cripple them, if not drive some of them out of business."

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This was all very well, but will these protesters, members of the dominant party, seize the chance to prove their sincerity? Senator Quay has announced that he will be a candidate for reëlection, and from this time until the Legislature shall ballot for the office a year from next winter, he will direct his energies towards securing another term. It rests with the business men of the State to decide whether he shall succeed. It is they who are chiefly responsible for the existing situation in Pennsylvania, for, as ex-Postmaster Field of Philadelphia said in his speech the other day, they "have committed the great interests of this State into the hands of a single individual." Will they commit those interests to the same hands again? Apparently they will. One of Quay's henchmen, State-Senator Durham, says that he has no doubt that the Senator will be triumphantly reëlected, and the Philadelphia *Ledger* says that "there is no apparent reason why any one else should have doubts upon the subject."

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The Georgia Bar Association, after disposing of those lawyers who defended lynchings, took some positive action towards securing reforms in methods of procedure which will remove abuses that have often provoked the people to violence. Resolutions were adopted which declared it to be the sense of the association that criminal pleadings should be amendable, that the State and the defendant should be upon an equality in the challenges of jurors, and that prisoners who desire to make any statements on their own behalf should do so under oath and subject to cross-examination. The President was authorized to appoint a committee of nine to urge the adoption by the next Legislature of bills embodying these principles, and to present to the Association at its next meeting a report covering the whole subject of needed reforms in the criminal law and its administration. The press of Georgia has long urged the necessity of such action as this on the part of the lawyers, and the profession in other States may well imitate the example.

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The decision of Justice Chester that the statute passed at the last session of the New York Legislature, known as the "Anti-Trust law," is unconstitutional. while not final, is very convincing in its reasoning. That statute was intended to correct the evils, or supposed evils, of combinations in restraint of trade by establishing altogether new methods of criminal procedure. It has been one of the distinguishing features of English jurisprudence that no one should be compelled to incriminate himself, or to give testimony tending to subject himself to penalties or forfeitures. This principle is recognized by the Constitution of the United States, and by the Constitution of New York, and has been generally supposed to rest upon an unquestionable basis of justice and expediency. While it may sometimes result in the escape of the guilty, it so clearly tends to protect the defenceless against oppression that few writers on jurisprudence have not given it their hearty approval. Apparently moved by the idea that trade combinations were beyond the reach of the established system of administering justice, the New York Legislature provided that no person should be excused from answering any question put to him in a proceeding under the statute in question on the ground that his answer might tend to prove him guilty of a misdemeanor as defined in that statute. With a view to avoid the constitutional provision, the statute further provided that the testimony given by a witness should not be used against him in a criminal proceeding, and that no criminal action should be brought against him on account of such testimony. As Justice Chester says, this would protect the witness against a prosecution for giving perjured testimony, but it would not protect him against prosecution for a violation of the statute disclosed by means of the testimony that he had been forced to give. "The act contains no immunity from prosecution of the witnesses for the crime which is sought to be discovered by the examination, and the discovery of which is the chief purpose of the examination."

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The second ground on which the act

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is held unconstitutional is more technical, but hardly less important. The procedure introduced imposes non-judicial functions on the courts, and thus violates the fundamental principle of the separation of the powers of government. The Attorney-General is empowered to call on a justice of the Supreme Court to assist him in discovering evidence. The justice has no function to perform in such a proceeding except that of a commissioner under letters rogatory. "There is no cross-examination of the witnesses; the testimony, if it can properly be called such, could not be used in an action or in any proceeding, and the application leads to no judgment or determination of the court." Such duties Justice Chester considers to be not judicial, but merely ancillary or auxiliary to the Attorney-General in the discharge of his functions, and as therefore not constitutionally devolved on the Supreme Court. So far as the substantive provisions of the act are concerned, Justice Chester intimates that they may be constitutional, for the reason that they simply reiterate the common and statute law on the subject of combinations in restraint of trade.

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Those glowing predictions in the *National Review* of what England would do for silver, which were cabled to this country a fortnight ago, turn out to be, as we suspected, little more than the editor's fancy at work. He says he "should gather" from M. Méline's speech that the French Premier would do so and so, and that he "believes" the British bimetallists to be able to compel the Government to do this and that; also "our readers may take it from us" that the Indian mints will be reopened, etc. All this qualifying guess-work was left out in the despatches, as was also the editor's admission that "public opinion in England is not ripe" for coining silver at a fixed ratio with gold; in other words, the international bimetallists are fooling themselves if they think they are going to get anything from England. But the *Review* says one thing which there is no gainsaying. Referring to the rumors that President McKinley intends to do something to establish the United States more securely on the gold standard, it observes:

> "It would be difficult to conceive anything more absurd than that the President of the United States should accredit three Special Envoys to the heads of the chief foreign governments for the express purpose of negotiating a bimetallic settlement, and meanwhile depute his Secretary of the Treasury to take the necessary steps for establishing his country on a monometallic gold basis. There never has been such double dealing as between nation and nation, and there never could be, and President McKinley is the last man in the world to lay himself open to such vile insinuations."

This is the simple truth. Nothing could be more absurd than the bimetallic Special Envoys if the Administration is really for the gold standard. Somebody is being tricked—either the bimetallists or the sound-money men.

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It should make little difference to England whether the seal question is formally reopened or not, for in some form or other it has been an open question ever since Mr. Blaine declared that it was *contra bonos mores* to kill seals unnecessarily. We doubt if any government in the world has ever shown such a determined disposition to do its duty in its foreign relations as ours has in the case of the seals. The case is all the more significant of our attitude because the court of arbitration, to which we got the matter referred, decided at the outset that "the United States have no right to the protection of or property in the seals frequenting the islands of the United States in Bering Sea when the same are found outside the ordinary three-mile limit." Nevertheless, we at the same time got the court to provide for joint fishing-regulations and a close season, established by elaborate rules, binding on fishermen of the United States and Great Britain and supervised by the governments of those countries. Such a police as this is a matter of daily and hourly regulation, and hence if we insist, as we do, that it is not effective, there is no reason why the expiration of the term of five years provided by the court for a reëxamination of the rules, should be waited for. England may say, "We will not reopen till the five years have elapsed"; to this no one can ever prevent us from replying, "You ought to reopen because the evidence shows that the police regulations are not effective." The fact is that the question is open; the difficulty is to close it.

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The debate in the French Chamber of Deputies over the renewal of the charter of the Bank has already occupied many weeks, and is far from its conclusion. It has taken a very wide range, and many subjects not on their face germane have been touched upon. Some of them, however, have aroused discussions concerning questions of world-wide importance, not the least interesting of which is the status of the funds of the Bank under established principles of international law. In general, it may be said, war is regarded as carried on by one state or government against another, and not as waged between the individual citizens of the hostile states. Thus, at the beginning of the war of 1870, King William announced that the war was to be waged against French soldiers, not against French citizens, whose lives and property would be protected so long as they did not engage in hostilities against the German forces. In pursuance of this policy, Prince Frederick William ordered the restitution of the funds of the branch of the Bank at Rheims, which had been confiscated by an over-zealous German officer on the capture of that town. This officer assumed that these funds were the property of the French Government, but Frederick William declared that the branch bank was a private institution, and that as such, unless its funds were intended to support the French army, they were exempt from seizure. A still more significant episode occurred at Strasbourg. On the capture of that town by Gen. Werder, the vaults of the branch bank were broken open, the cashier refusing to produce the keys, and the contents were sequestrated. They amounted to 10,000,000 fr., of which 6,000,000 fr. was in bags, ticketed, "At the disposition of the General Treasury." These moneys were transferred to the custody of the Bank of Prussia, but the Bank of France at once claimed them. The matter was referred to the historian Von Sybel, who admitted that the Prussian Government had no right to the property of the Bank of France; but he insisted that money marked as belonging to the French Treasury was properly the subject of prize. On the other hand, M. Robert of the Bank of France maintained that, in the case of personal property, possession determined ownership, and that as the 6,000,000 fr. were in the hands of the Bank of France, they were at law its property. This position was finally sustained by a special article in the treaty of Frankfort, and the confiscated money was repaid to the Bank of France.

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The bearing of these incidents on the present proposals of the French Socialists is very plain. They are doing all they can to convert the Bank into a state institution, and if they succeed they will necessarily expose its immense treasures to the fortunes of war. That these treasures would be used by the French Government, if it owned the Bank, is not a circumstance that would discourage the Socialists; but even they may be inclined to hesitate before taking a step that might put these vast resources at the disposal of a hostile Power. Possibilities of this character were considered in 1889, when the constitution of the Bank of Germany was debated; and the whole question was investigated recently in Switzerland, where a law establishing a state bank was rejected by the referendum. In the debate in the Reichstag, M. Thiers's declaration, that if the Bank of France saved the country, it was because it was not a state bank, was quoted with approval, and it was because of the possibilities of war that great care was taken to give the Reichsbank the character of a private institution. It is of the essence of socialism to despise the warnings of the past, but the magnitude of the danger that may be incurred in this instance is sufficient to daunt the most reckless fanatic.

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### *THE SENATORIAL VETO.*

Many truths and powers latent in the Constitution have been brought to light and put in action during the tariff debates in the Senate, and not the least important of them is the senatorial veto. This is a grant of power not expressly made in the Constitution; it comes under the head of "implied powers," perhaps, or is involved in the "general-welfare" clause, it may be. Indeed, it is difficult to see how the right of senatorial veto could be reduced to precise terms in writing at all. It is essentially a vague, a shifting, a will-o'-the-wisp right, now apparently vested in this person, now in that, never quite the same thing at two different times. Doubtless it would have been put in the Constitution if the framers had known how to do it; and so, applying the great legal (or Jesuitical, we forget which) "doctrine of intention," we may say that the senatorial veto is, or should be, one of our most cherished constitutional rights, privileges, ægises, and palladia.

The particular senatorial veto to which we refer should not be confused with other varieties. It is wholly distinct from the senatorial veto on the President's appointments to office. The latter right being now so well recognized, being accepted and acted upon by Mr. McKinley, whom some foolish people thought to be himself in possession of the veto power, surely needs no further arguing with intelligent people. Nor do we allude to the veto which the Senate may exercise on ill-judged treaties looking to peace and civilization. It is well known that, as Selden said the whole divine sanction of the decision of a general council rested in "the odd man" whose vote carried it, so the right of making treaties really rests, not in the President, but in the one man in the Senate over or under a two-thirds vote. No, the new senatorial veto we have in mind is one relating particularly to legislation, more narrowly to tariff legislation, closer still to tariff legislation openly and weightily affecting private interests.

Examples being always the best definitions, we will show this senatorial veto in actual exercise. The Senate finance committee proposed an increased tax on beer. This appeared to be wholly within their constitutional rights, and the tax looked very pretty on paper, promising a snug revenue. But the committee had omited to look into Story on the 'Conflict of Laws,' and so had forgotten the fact that the right to veto a tax on beer was vested in Senator Platt. Thus he was compelled to go to them and tell them that he was very sorry, that he wanted revenue as badly as any of them, but that really this was his affair, and his own oath of office and the oaths of the brewers would not permit him to approve of this tax. The committee saw that they had run up against a senatorial veto, and gracefully withdrew the tax.

Many other cases could be cited of the use of this veto. All of them were not in open Senate. To make it as easy as possible for the committee, vetoing Senators used often to go to them at dead of night and beg them not to force a veto, under unpleasant circumstances, in public. There seems also to be a species of the senatorial veto closely allied to what the commentators call, in the case of the President, the "pocket veto," though it seems to be something else than a bill (of Congress; we cannot vouch for the legal-tender kind) that is, in this instance, put in the pocket. But, in spite of all that kindness and forethought could do, the finance committee had often to be vetoed in the full light of day. Again and again Senators had to rise with a pained air and say, "The committee appear to have overlooked my right to veto taxes on soda-ash [or silk handkerchiefs, or pineapples, or white pine, as the case may be]. Far be it from me to keep the spindles from singing again, but I must draw the line here. The committee may tax anything else they please, from argols to Zante currants, and never a murmur will they hear from me; but this tax is a blow at my privileges, and I stand here to say that I never receive a blow without paying it back with interest. So I must return the bill to the committee without my approval."

A tabulation of articles as to which various Senators hold the right of veto would be of great value. It would be an indispensable guide to the framers of the next tariff. If they could know in advance what taxes would be vetoed, by what Senators, they could make a great saving of time and temper. As the list of vetoable taxes is rapidly extending, the time should not be far distant when we can have no tariff at all, as some Senator will be found to veto every item of it. This would leave us rather worse off for revenue than we are now, but it would establish the senatorial veto as thoroughly constitutional. The Washington correspondents, it seems to us, have been neglectful in not compiling a tariff classification of this sort. The form should be something like this:

| Article. | Veto vested in |
|---|---|
| 1. Beer | Tom Platt. |
| 2. Soda-ash | Orville Platt. |
| 3. Pineapples | Mat. Quay. |
| 4. White pine | Spooner-McMillan, ½ vote each. |

Carried out through the entire tariff, such a tabulation would be simply invaluable. It would be instructive, too, and fit to do fine work in a campaign of education, if we ever have another. Moreover, it would show how great a triumph it is for Senator Allison to have actually carried a bill over, not one veto, but ninety vetoes, including his own. The vetoes have, to be sure, knocked all the revenue out of the bill, but there is the bill, and it is more than doubtful if the Senate has a constitutional right to raise revenue anyhow.

### *ANARCHY.*

President McKinley's surrender has now become an abdication. He has finally divested himself of his last remaining constitutional power, and the country is practically without a President. Like a Merovingian king, he retains the semblance of a ruler, but really holds office only to sign the decrees which other men impose upon him. He is a highly respectable figure-head; he is an excellent royal-progress kind of Chief Magistrate, travelling about to lay corner-stones and wish his people prosperity; but a President in the constitutional sense—a President of independent initiative, jealous of his prerogative, direct representative of the people—he is not.

Four short months have seen him strip away one power after another of his great office, and throw it to the clamorous bosses. First came the surrender of his constitutional power to "appoint . . . . officers of the United States." He is now simply a pen to sign the commissions which Senators thrust in his face. Next came his abandonment of the power "to make treaties." The Hawaiian treaty was not made by the President, but by a clique of bargaining Senators. Finally, he has given up the right to "recommend to Congress such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient." Congressmen visited him on Thursday, and demanded the surrender of this Presidential function. Mr. McKinley turned it over without a murmur. He prefers to have the country know that he is but the simulacrum of a President.

His retreat on the currency question was most undisguised and cowardly. It was no mere rumor that he was proposing to send a message to Congress urging a first step towards currency reform. There was a formal cabinet meeting. It was formally decided by the President and his official advisers that a message should be sent. The message was actually prepared. The Secretary of the Treasury gave out a glowing interview about it. Anxious friends of sound money were saying, "At last!" Suddenly all was changed. A hurried visit of Congressmen to the White House led to the announcement that the President would hold back his message and probably not send it at all.

No secret is made of what was back of all this. Simply another shameful bargain had been struck to save the tariff. Here is the *Tribune's* unblushing account of the intrigue:

"It is known that the Republican managers in the Senate agreed three weeks ago not to press any measure providing for a

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currency commission at the present session. The promise was made at a time when the fate of the tariff bill was by no means certain, and when it was in the power of the Opposition at least to delay action on that measure indefinitely. The agreement provided that there should be no effort on the part of the opponents of the tariff bill to delay action unnecessarily, and that the Republicans should not urge the currency-commission scheme at the present session, even if the President should send in a message recommending such a commission."

And the *Tribune's* cynical comment on the whole disgraceful transaction is that the message would not have amounted to anything, even if it had been sent, as it was intended only as "a soothing dose for inflamed nerves"!

We seem to remember that the *Tribune's* nerves were somewhat inflamed, along with those of the rest of the community, when the great fight for sound money and the nation's honor was waging last summer. We have not forgotten, if others have, the appeals, the promises which were made in Mr. McKinley's name. He asked for and received the support of thousands of Democrats and tens of thousands of Independents, on the ground that he would move speedily and vigorously for a reform of our vicious currency system. As late as in his inaugural address he made fair promises on this subject. Now, at the first fire—before the first fire—at a mere hint—he runs away. It is a fearful blow, not to his own prestige—that is hopelessly broken—but to the whole cause of currency reform. If Senators can veto a message now, they can next December. The silverites control the situation, and they control it just as they did in 1890—through a wicked betrayal. Dead currency reform is the price paid for the tariff of 1897, as the silver profligacy was for the tariff of 1890. And the men who made Mr. McKinley President are taunted, in the face of this monstrous treachery, with being victims of "inflamed nerves"!

But there is something deeper and worse in all this than the fate of any particular message or measure. It signifies that constitutional government has ceased to exist at Washington. No organ or exponent of the popular will now remains there. If it were simply the fact that Congress had become supreme, and that the President had consented to be effaced, the situation would be deplorable. Congress has undoubtedly been pushing its usurpation of power during the past twenty years. The secret of its ferocious hostility to Mr. Cleveland was more than personal—it was due to its perception that in him a rugged and outspoken opponent of its unconstitutional pretensions had been found. He excited the wild rage of Congress not so much by what he did, as by the fact that he dared to do anything independently. Mr. McKinley has changed all that. He and Congress are harmoniously at one, but Congress is the one. Harmony is always attainable by surrender, and the President has now not only surrendered, but abdicated.

This of itself, we say, would be most deplorable and alarming. But the desperate nature of the situation is fully seen only when we consider the fact that it is not Congress, but the clique of bosses in control of Congress, that is now supreme. What are the Republican Representatives from New York, Pennsylvania, and Ohio but so many puppets in the hands of Platt, Quay, and Hanna? What does the Republican caucus in either House or Senate register but the decree of these men and their fellow-conspirators? That is what our representative system has come to in practical operation. By denying the people the right to nominate, by blackmail and intimidation, a group of political bosses has been enabled to bestride Congress. And it is to them, not to Congress, that the President is really surrendering his constitutional rights and powers. It was Quay—not on the finance committee, not on the conference committee, having nothing to do directly with the fate of either tariff or currency—it was Quay who went to the White House and told the President his message must not be sent. Of course, the American people have got to find some way of restoring their government. But they will have to get along without Mr. McKinley's help. He has extinguished himself.

## *REACTION.*

The Republican party has always posed as the especial friend of civil-service reform. In the first national convention after the passage of the act of 1883 it declared that this reform had been "auspiciously begun under the Republican administration," and advocated its completion "by the further extension of the system to all the grades of the service to which it is applicable," as well as the observance of "the spirit and purpose of the reform in all executive appointments." In the convention of 1888 this declaration was readopted, with a contemptuous allusion to the desertion of the reform cause by those who had abandoned the Republican party in 1884, and with the boast that "we will not fail to keep our pledges because they have broken theirs, or because their candidate [Cleveland] has broken his." The platform of 1892 commended "the spirit and evidence of reform in the civil service [under Harrison], and the wise and consistent enforcement by the Republican party of the laws regulating the same."

The Republican national convention of 1896 "pointed with pride" to the party's share in promoting civil-service reform, and committed the organization anew to the further extension of the merit system. This was the brief but comprehensive declaration on the subject:

"The civil-service law was placed on the statute-book by the Republican party, which has always sustained it, and we renew our repeated declarations that it shall be thoroughly and honestly enforced and extended wherever practicable."

The candidate nominated upon this platform had been a supporter of the reform while he was in Congress. As "leader of the House" in 1890, he had opposed an attempt by Republican spoilsmen to "starve out" the commission by refusing any appropriation for its expenses; had expressed his "regret that the committee on appropriations did not give to the commission all the appropriation that was asked for, for the improvement and extension of the system"; and had declared that "the Republican party must take no backward step," because "the merit system is here, and it is here to stay, and we may just as well understand and accept it now." Six years later, in accepting his nomination for the Presidency, Mr. McKinley pledged himself thus solemnly to maintain and extend the reform:

"The pledge of the Republican national convention that our civil-service laws 'shall be sustained and thoroughly and honestly enforced and extended wherever practicable,' is in keeping with the position of the party for the last twenty-four years, and will be faithfully observed. Our opponents decry these reforms. They appear willing to abandon all the advantages gained, after so many years' agitation and effort. They encourage a return to methods of party favoritism which both parties have often denounced, that experience has condemned, and that the people have repeatedly disapproved. The Republican party earnestly opposes this reactionary and entirely unjustifiable policy. It will take no backward step upon this question. It will seek to improve, but never degrade, the public service."

The professedly "authoritative" announcement has been made from Washington, by the chief organ of the Administration, that "important modifications of the civil-service rules will be made by the President at an early day," which will exempt from competition the employees of the Government Printing-Office; deputy collectors, and other minor employees of the internal-revenue service; the sub-officials and employees of federal marshals and district attorneys; and probably also "the chiefs of divisions and chiefs of bureaus, and so forth." The impending "modifications" are reported by the *Tribune's* correspondent as likely to take effect on or about the 20th of July.

It would be hard to exaggerate the seriousness of the proposed changes. The "modifications" outlined would be a step very far backward. Hitherto, under Arthur, Cleveland, Harrison, and Cleveland again, each administration has extended the scope of the merit system. The gains made during Mr. Cleveland's second term were the most important of all. The bringing of the deputy collectors and minor employees in the internal-revenue service within the classified service had been strongly recommended

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by a Republican Civil-Service Commission while Mr. Roosevelt was at its head; the extension of the reform system to cover chiefs of division and other similar officials had been expressly and repeatedly urged by Mr. Roosvelt; the inclusion of the Government Printing-Office in the classified service had been long advocated by Republican reformers. Experience has vindicated every extension of the reform, and disproved all the charges made by its opponents.

Every excuse which has been put forward to justify the President's alleged intention to break into the classified service and restore something like 5,000 places to the disposition of the spoilsmen, is based on falsehood. Mr. McAneny, Secretary of the National Civil-Service Reform League, has shown this in two letters published last week in the *Evening Post*. If, in the face of these letters, President McKinley and Secretary Gage carry out the plans attributed to them, they will do so with full knowledge of what their acts mean. They will be taking the first retrograde step which any administration has taken since the classified service was established under President Arthur in January, 1883. From that date to the present time there has been a steady and unbroken progress onward, each successive administration extending the classified service until its membership, which was 15,000 under President Arthur, had been swelled to nearly 90,000 when President McKinley entered upon office, leaving less than 800 places outside civil-service rules.

"The large inclusions," says the *Tribune's* "authoritative statement," "embracing some of the best-paying places, which were made in the last few months of Mr. Cleveland's administration, were clearly of a partisan nature, and not in the line of civil-service reform. Restoring them cannot injure the cause of reform. On the contrary, the rebuke administered to partisan Democracy by their reinclusion in the list of appointive offices will be an efficient factor in the genuine reforms instituted by President McKinley."

There is not one word of truth in this justification. The employees of the Government Printing-Office were placed in the classified service in June, 1895, at the request of the Public Printer. The clerks, storekeepers, and gaugers in the internal-revenue service were classified in December, 1894, and the deputy collectors in May, 1896, mainly through the efforts of Theodore Roosevelt. The subofficers and employees in the marshals' and district attorneys' offices were classified in May, 1896. There were no orders issued "in the last few months of Mr. Cleveland's administration," nor were there, as the *Tribune* also charges, any "midnight orders" issued either in the "last months" of the Cleveland administration or at any other time. This is the favorite lie of the spoilsmen, harped on with especial emphasis by Senator Gallinger of New Hampshire. The latest order issued by President Cleveland was dated May 6, 1896, long before the nominating conventions of last year's Presidential campaign were held, and consequently months before any one could have foreseen the result of the election in the following November. The other lie, which invariably accompanies this one, is that the various orders which President Cleveland issued swept into the classified service a "great army of partisan Democrats." The facts are, as shown by the records, that there are today more Republicans than Democrats in all branches of the service.

The true spirit of these assaults upon the classified service is revealed in this passage from the *Tribune's* "authoritative" statement: "The President is not a dreamer or a doctrinaire. With the eye of a practical statesman—one devoted at all times to the cause of civil-service reform—he has studied since his election what should be done to make the service what it ought to be." That is precisely the language which Gov. Black used in defence of his plans for "taking the starch out of the civil service." He is not a "dreamer or a doctrinaire," and he approaches the law with the "eye of a practical statesman." So do Platt and Quay and all the other despisers of "dreamers and doctrinaires." Mr. McKinley did not speak about the law and the reform in these terms when he made his pledge in his letter of acceptance; neither did such language about them find its way into the platform upon which he stood, nor has it ever found its way into any Republican platform. The party is in power now, and its bosses are demanding more spoils than are accessible. These demands can be met only by breaking into the classified service, and hence the President's preparing to make the assault.

## *POOLS, TRUSTS, AND MONOPOLIES*

There is one point connected with the crusade against capital that has been raging for the past year which seems to have attracted little attention, yet which lies at the heart of the matter—what system would the reformers substitute for the existing arrangement? Debs and the Populists, of course, know what they want; the former is quoted as saying last week that inasmuch as under the present régime capitalists can get no profits, and labor can get no wages, the only way for industry to make any advance is for the whole to be worked by the State for joint account, after which he thinks that the troubles would disappear. This semi-insane declaration is only a burlesque of the actual ideas which underlie the populistic movement.

We do not refer to those ideas, but rather to the whole scheme of criminal legislation against Trusts and monopolies, federal and State, which has all been enacted within a few years at the demand of agitators, and which forms a totally new page in our criminal code. Those who pass and apply such statutes must have, one would think, some idea of what would or might take the place of the vast network of charters, Trusts, contracts, and pools through which capital now operates the agencies of trade and commerce. They can hardly suppose that treating the whole present arrangement as a mass of crime will answer; even if you can both indict a whole community, or a whole generation, and also convict it, the evil is scotched, not killed. You must have some system in mind which is to take the place of what you would destroy.

This is a question which particularly addresses itself to the minds of judges who have to look into these new laws, because criminal legislation is all based on the idea of a possible alternative. It is idle to make offences out of acts which are necessary, and hence the first question underlying the whole debate about Trusts, pools, monopolies, and contracts in restraint of trade is not merely whether they produce inconvenience, now and then enrich men whom we should prefer to see poor, or impoverish men whom we should like to see rich—these consequences have attended the progress of civilization since the dawn of history—but whether pools, Trusts, monopolies, and contracts in restraint of trade are not really a necessary part of our civilization, which cannot be superseded without the disappearance of civilization itself.

Strangely enough, although this matter is vitally involved in our system of constitutional law, it has not yet been thoroughly discussed in this country. Next autumn it will come before the courts in a variety of forms, notably in the argument of the Joint Traffic case before the Supreme Court at Washington. It has, however, been canvassed in England in a great judicial argument, to the full importance of which Mr. W. L. Royall of the Richmond and New York bars invites attention in a pamphlet called 'The Pool and the Trust; Their Side of the Case.' The English case was not a criminal proceeding, although it would have been in this country, but it involved a discussion of the "policy" underlying all interference by the courts with contracts.

The facts were much blacker from the anti-monopolists' point of view than any involved in the trans-Missouri case or in the recent cigarette trial in this city. We give them in Mr. Royall's own words:

"Several lines of steamships traded to China all the year. The trade was unprofitable, except in the so-called 'tea season,' when it was very profitable. The losses of the year were made up and a profit gained by the freights on tea in 'tea season.' Another line of steamers traded to Australia all the year until 'tea season' came on, when its steamers were diverted to Hankow

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to get a part of the profitable tea trade. The lines which traded to China all the year entered, thereupon, into an agreement, called there a conference, which was in all essentials one of our 'Trusts,' or 'pools,' or 'monopolies,' or 'boycotts,' or 'contracts in restraint of trade,' or whatever else of the same sort can be suggested. They agreed together to divide out freights among themselves, and they published a notice to all merchants in China that if they would ship everything all the year by one of the conference lines, they would be allowed a rebate from all freights at the end of the year of 5 per cent., and whenever one of the steamers of the Australian line came to Hankow the conference had a steamer there to underbid it on freights; so that whatever the Australian got caused it a loss. Thereupon the Australian line applied to the English courts for protection, upon the ground that this combination of many against one was contrary to the principles of our laws."

Now all the English judges but one, from the trial court up to the House of Lords, sustained the agreement, and they sustained it on the ground that they could not help themselves. "It is not illegal," Lord Morris said, "for a trader to aim at driving a competitor out of trade, provided the motive be his own gain by appropriation of the trade." And it is clear from the case, as Mr. Royall very justly says, that "the alternative idea, which turns courts loose to judge of the validity or invalidity of each particular agreement accordingly as the judge may think it is in harmony or out of harmony with his ideas of public policy, leaves the question of the citizen's rights to the discretion, and the arbitrary discretion, of a judge." This is really the alternative. And if we extend the principle to this country, and imagine the present crusade successful, we should find that our substitute for our present commercial system was the despotism either of court or Legislature.

The trans-Missouri case and Judge Peckham's opinion in it were a perfect illustration. All contracts, he declares, "in restraint of trade" are illegal, because the Legislature has said so. It may be reasonable, or unreasonable, enforceable or unenforceable, but the rule is final. The English case just referred to was, we believe, quoted in the argument, but it made no more impression on him and the majority judges than if it had been blank paper, evidently because the idea is firmly lodged in their minds that arbitrary edicts or decisions are to be substituted in these matters for the free rules of the common law which have made our civilization what it is to-day. Of course, this is only the first step. The last would be the reintroduction of the old despotic control of trade by Government under which free competition would disappear, and the right to buy and sell and manufacture and exchange would become again privileges granted and sold by the Government. Is it possible that we have forgotten already that it was by Government that "monopolies" were introduced, and by freedom not only in competition, but in combination, that they were destroyed?

## LONDON DECORATED.

LONDON, June 24, 1897.

So much has been written about the Jubilee that one hesitates to add to the columns of special reports and correspondence on the subject. And yet there is a certain aspect of the celebration to which little reference has been made, though it is distinctly interesting enough not to be passed unnoticed. From the political, sentimental, personal, domestic standpoint, everything that could be has been said. But, while even our own "Greatest Show on Earth" never drew such crowds as the spectacle of London's streets decorated, almost everybody has been content to stare and maintain a discreet silence. There have been only a very few bold voices to tell the truth, aloud and without fear, and to pronounce the decorations abominable.

It might be suggested that the abomination was merely what was to be expected—was merely in keeping with Victorian taste: a fitting tribute to the period commemorated. But it must not be forgotten that the English artist is supposed to have changed all this, and it is really because one has heard lately from all sides of his admirable achievement in the decorative arts that the amazing display London has been making of itself seems the more significant. Within recent years, has it not been to England that the designers and decorators of the Continent and of America have been turning for inspiration? The Salon de l'Art Nouveau in Paris depends upon English Arts- and Craftsmen for its chief attractions. Belgians adorn their houses with bewildering exaggerations of English models. Germany sends enthusiasts to spy out the new Promised Land. The name of Morris is a household word everywhere, and the *Studio* has become the universal organ of artist, art student, and amateur. Nor is the Englishman too modest to admit and glory in the proud position he holds as decorator. It may be that to many an unknown, nameless artisan from abroad he owes the beauty of his old cathedrals; it may be that to Van Dyck and Rubens he must attribute the greatness of the greatest school of English painters; it may be that for the Chippendale chair, the Sheraton table, the Adams mantle, that now make the fortune of the dealer in antiquities, he is indebted to France. But to-day, at last, does he not boast that it is he who sets the standard of decoration for the world? And, as his Arts and Crafts Exhibitions explain, there is not a branch of the ornamental arts which he has not had the time and the ambition to study and develop. Nor does his activity cease here. Technical schools have multiplied in order that among the many as well as the few taste may be cultivated, the early Victorian errors rectified. South Kensington spreads its schools in all directions. The County Council has its art advisers and art classes, and, indeed, at the very moment that London was adorning itself for the feast, I am told that a technical congress, within sound of the decorator's hammer, was calmly and solemnly discussing the beautifying of cities.

And now consider the use London has made of the first great opportunity to prove its decorative powers—for the decoration of a city gives wider scope to the artist than the ornamentation of a single house. An imperial pageant, surely, offers fewer restrictions than the domestic stage. And there was plenty of time for preparation: long months to evolve and perfect a scheme, long weeks to carry it out. Moreover, there was wealth and to spare—money pouring like water into the capacious pockets of builder, contractor, and decorator. Finally, there was a fine background waiting; one, it is true, without the classic elegance of Paris, without the flamboyant color and warmth of Rome or Seville, but still a background with a certain dignity and impressiveness, with a richness and mystery of which the thick London atmosphere holds the secret. When, more than a month before the appointed day, London began to turn itself into a hideous labyrinth of scaffolding and steps; when Trafalgar Square—"the finest site in Europe"—became for the time a huge carpenter's shop; when the National Gallery, the beautiful churches of the Strand, St. Paul's, gradually disappeared behind a network of poles and planks, one bore it in patience, even though one lived in the very midst of the colossal confusion, reserving one's criticism until the builder had been replaced by the decorator.

The decorator appearing, his first care was to put up a sign announcing himself. He came from Tottenham Court Road, from Westbourne Grove, from Oxford Street, from Pall Mall—from a shop, not a studio; the task was in the hands of tradesmen, not artists. And with the first touches of color on the bare wooden structures, the first suggestions of ornament, it was clear that each was working for himself alone, without thought of his neighbor. The Londoner was carrying the English love of personal liberty even into his manner of receiving the Queen. Where principles are at stake, what matter if discord be the result? Paris, little more than a year ago, gave a reminder of the stateliness and splendor with which a great capital can decorate itself on a state occasion. There, authorities did not put their confidence in chance, but in a general scheme of decoration. In London there was absolutely no scheme. The artist was not consulted, so far as I can find out, save in a solitary instance, and then by no means to his credit. Mr. Legros designed a large allegorical group—"Great Britain, Labor, and Commerce"—for the front of the Bank of England; but whether he was hindered by the nature of the commission, or whether he was unused to open-air conditions, certainly the design, when in place, was dull and uninteresting in color, and no more effective than the scene painter's devices for a theatrical spectacle. Elsewhere, however, with two or three notable exceptions, the loyal Londoner relied chiefly upon red bunting, the old familiar V. R., the thistles and symbols that have done duty for so many countless royal birthdays and weddings, ugly little clusters of glass globes, cheap, dreadful portraits of the Queen, all stuck up here and there and everywhere, according to the convenience of the contractor. Beauty, apparently, was left out of the reckoning, except at the *Daily Telegraph* office—its effort deserves to be recorded—which embowered itself in palms, and greens, and purple orchids, and at one of the Pall Mall clubs, which relied also upon fresh flowers and a fine arrangement of flags—among them the Confederate flag waving gayly.

Nor was the mere gorgeousness, beautiful or otherwise, the occasion seemed to demand, taken into consideration. The Baron-

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ess Burdett-Coutts made one brave effort with a regal arrangement of purple velvet curtains and gilded columns that disguised the bare ugliness of her Piccadilly mansion. But, for the rest, as a rule, cheapness struck the keynote. And matters were not improved when the City and the different vestries vied with each other in their efforts to disfigure the streets. Across Piccadilly were strung lines of dangling glasses, suggestive of the rows of bottles in a cheap shooting-gallery. The Strand was bridged over by a series of strange erections bearing what looked like red, green, and yellow toy balloons and money-lenders' signs, as primitive and barbaric in design as any ornament you could hope to find in a Central African village. In Fleet Street garlands of artificial flowers and greens swung from purple pillars. Up Ludgate Hill stretched a line of gallows-shaped columns, from which were suspended dried palm leaves, while above each rose a Japanese fan rampant.

So one might go on, describing the marvels of the route. From end to end, the artlessness of the display was simply incredible, though there is a rumor that for the little that was done by the authorities Paris was, in a measure, responsible. But if it be true, as is said, that some of the Jubilee street decorations had already served on the other side of the Channel to welcome the Czar, then in Paris they must have been arranged to far better purpose. London, arrayed in gala dress for the mightiest ceremonial it has been its privilege to hold for many a year, seemed to have borrowed the cheap finery of the travelling show or the country fair. There were places, indeed, where you had but to strew sawdust along the street to imagine yourself in the circus-ring. The wealthiest city in the world, the city that to-day pretends to set a decorative example to two continents, could not vie with the quietest little French town when it makes the feast solely for its own pleasure and delectation. Why, if nothing had been done until the last moment, and if then the City Companies had hung out some of their tapestries and banners, the spectacle would have been worthy of the reception of a Queen and Empress, on her way to return thanks for the sixty years of peace and prosperity her reign has secured to her people.

But really, the fiasco of the decorations—that is, of course, artistically—is the more unpardonable because of the money and material at the command of the people who prepared them. In the procession itself there was the same waste, the same failure to make the most of things. No one has denied that as a pageant it was a disappointment, imperial triumph as it proved from the loyal or political point of view. The elements of magnificence and grandeur were all there; the old Roman conqueror celebrating his victories might have envied the peaceful English Queen the resources at her disposal; but these were sadly squandered. The white, yellow, and black men from the colonies were so massed together that the picturesque costume and bearing of each were lost in the hurried general impression formed as they passed. There was a lavish excess of dazzling uniforms and official robes; indeed, one felt, with perhaps a thrill of patriotism, that the severe civilian dress of the United States representative was a distinction in itself. But it is curious how ill at ease and ashamed the English officer appears to be when he shows himself to the public in his military capacity, while in the jumble of princes only the solemn beautiful Indians and the charming operatic Montenegrins could be distinguished. The one person in all that long array who seemed to understand what was expected of him—except, of course, the Queen, who managed to be as queenly as if bonnet and parasol had been exchanged for crown and sceptre—was the Lord-Mayor on his way to Temple Bar to receive her Majesty, and again as he returned, bearing his sword, to the Mansion House. He wore robes of velvet and ermine, he rode a fine horse, he held himself with dignity, and he beamed in such unaffected delight, he bowed so gayly, as the people greeted him with deafening shouts, that it was a pleasure to see him. If kingdom and empire fail in time of rejoicing, the City of London, at least, still knows how to conduct its ceremonies with proper dignity and display.

Again, with the illuminations there was the same waste, the same thriftlessness, the same reliance upon chance. Again there was the same individualism revealed in the scheme, or lack of scheme, adopted. Naturally, even this haphazard arrangement sometimes produced beauty. There is no finer river than the Thames as it flows through London, and when, in the blue night, the dome of St. Paul's rose white and shining above it; when, as a strong searchlight fell upon them, the buildings on its banks became so many palaces; when boats with red and blue and gold lights floated across its waters—why then it was more like a river in fairy land—the "River of Dreams" that Mr. Henley calls it. But this beauty, after all, was not designed; it happened, as beauty always does in London. And now that the Jubilee is over, one realizes that thousands and millions have been spent, and actually nothing remains to show for them. Not that one is so sordid as not to believe that nations and cities, like individuals, are all the better for letting themselves go now and then, for a little generous outburst of extravagance. But there is the regret that in this case the extravagance did not fulfil its object at the moment, and has left no triumphant trophy behind—not a building, not a statue, not an archway, not a monument to remind the generations to come of the way the sixtieth anniversary of the Victorian reign was kept. The Hospital Fund is supposed to be the noble monument erected. But there was a time when those who gave to the poor and the weak could house their charity becomingly, so that the artist now rejoices in the hospital, as he sees it from without, no less than the sick rejoices in the shelter and comfort it affords within. But in our utilitarian age there is no thought for art. Besides, the Jubilee policy seems to have been, save for this Hospital Fund, to enjoy to-day and let to-morrow look out for itself. Were not the thousands presented to the Princess of Wales to feed the poor, eaten up in an afternoon? Such a policy has its own splendor of recklessness; there is always a something of romance about the spendthrift. But why not, to borrow a phrase from Ibsen, be reckless beautifully?

N. N.

## A PSYCHOLOGICAL MUSEUM.

FLORENCE, June 25, 1897.

Florence is so preëminently a city of historical and artistic interests that the average tourist does not suspect the wealth of its splendid scientific collections; hardly even their very existence. The immortal Baedeker, it is true, mentions several modern museums, but these are not granted the double stars which point to the sight-seer's true goal; and the only indication of the very curious rooms of which mention will presently be made, seems to be that of a "musée indien fondé par A. de Gubernatis" (Baedeker, 'Italie Septentrionale,' pp. 365 and 410, ed. 1895). This museum, which is reached from the Via Gino Capponi, and not through the main University entrance, in reality forms part of the Section of Anthropology in the Instituto dei Studii Superiori, and should be so described; for although the "Indian curiosities" include several interesting relics from one of the voyages of Cook (the navigator, not the tourist agent), the ethnological and anthropological purposes of the display are its chief grounds for existence. Further, the museum has long been superintended by Prof. Paolo Mantegazza and his distinguished assistant, Signor Ettore Regalia. Count Angelo de Gubernatis left Florence some years ago, in order to fill the chair of Italian Literature in the Sapienza at Rome.

There are in this museum two small rooms and a cabinet to which an unusual measure of interest attaches, both because of the original idea implied in their foundation and from the number of singular objects they contain. These constitute the "Psychological Museum," established by Prof. Mantegazza in 1889, under the sanction of a royal decree of that date. The present writer remembers reading, a few years ago, a somewhat inadequate notice of this collection in the Italian correspondence of the oldest of European reviews. The sex of the writer was unfortunately betrayed by the tone of a comment on one of the divisions. Prof. Mantegazza's intention is to illustrate, or symbolize, human passions, sentiments, and so forth, with the help of objects which serve in their expression or their gratification, or both. In view of this, human feelings have been divided into the Sentiments of Religion, Cruelty, Vanity, Caricature, Property, and *Sentimenti Diversi*, to each of which one or more cases in the museum have been allotted. The most obvious commentary on this arrangement would bear on its doubtful scientific accuracy and usefulness; but until we have, as Mill said, a "Science of Human Nature," all such classifications are bound to violate the rules of formal logical division, nor will the ordinary visitor give much thought to the general plan of a collection whose details are in themselves sufficiently odd and fascinating.

As the manuscript catalogue shows, the whole exhibition consists of some 1,487 numbers. By far the largest part of this collection consists of objects illustrative of the religious sentiment, with the subdivision of superstition in some of its commonest forms. As will readily be understood, we find here not only religious emblems, such as crosses, etc., but the various artificial aids to worship in ordinary or extraordinary use. Here, therefore, are rosaries, medals, scapularies, chaplets, taliths, phylacteries, etc.; while the influence of superstition may be held to be amply represented in charms, amulets, works on the interpretation of dreams or other omens, recipes for love-philters, the familiar coral branchlets still used in Italy

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as a protection against the *jettatura* or evil-eye, and so on. One of the most curious things I discovered in this department was a special form of prayer for curing babies of worms. It would, however, be rather hard to explain the presence on the same shelves of a little paper ticket (No. 443), which is said to have been used by students in Berlin under circumstances rendered plain enough by the accompanying inscription: "Ich kneipe diese Nacht. Sollte ich meinen Weg nicht mehr finden, so befestigen Sie mir gefl. diesen Zettel im Knopfloch und *senden mich heim.* Name ..... Wohnung ....." Another puzzle was the catalogue-description of a large rosary made of wooden beads (No.1433) said to have been "usata dai *Protestanti* negli Stati Uniti d'America," the italicized word having been substituted for *Cattolici*, which is scored out in the manuscript list. I had not the courage to ask Signor Regalia any further details concerning the worship of the sect to which the use of this chaplet is ascribed. As an illustration of the unexpected way in which a familiar and venerable superstition may be applied to thoroughly modern conditions, one notices, close by, the badge or ticket of Bed No. xiii. in a hospital at Florence, which a woman refused to occupy.* Less easily accounted for is the belief among Ligurian sailors and fishermen that two plain unblessed bits of string (No. 293), when tied around the ankles, are a guard against cramps. In the present writer's school days, it was generally held among the boys, on equally warrantable grounds, that two crossed horsehairs in the palm of the hand would not only prevent pain altogether, but infallibly break the cane.

Symbolical expression of the gloomy element of intense religious belief is found in a case filled with hairshirts, scourges (*discipline*), and other ingenious devices against physical comfort, many of which still show bloodstains from old use. Here, for example, is a belt of iron wire bristling inwardly with sharp points, and admitting of tight or loose buckling to suit the severity of the penance. The buckle is cruciform and has little attachments in the shape of small serrated disks, which swing about under the penitent's gown and describe arcs of circles on the skin. One sometimes reads of mock flagellations inflicted with lashes of tow, but the scourges displayed here are undeniably serious. They consist of a dozen or more small metal plates, shaped somewhat like the patent tag on a key-ring, and arranged in the form of a triangle, to the apex of which the thong was fastened. It is a genuine relief to turn from all this to a neighboring shelf, on which stands an original toy—a small wooden church with altar and benches but without a cross, bearing on its façade the inscription, "Maria Mater Grazie." How far such a plaything would foster the growth of religious reverence in the mind of a child would be an interesting subject of experiment for students of what Max Müller contemptuously terms "Nursery Psychology." *A priori*, I should be disposed to place this in the same category as No. 1434, paper money devised by the late Arturo Issel, professor of geology, for the dissemination of useful knowledge, each denomination being a separate booklet setting forth the elementary principles of some science.

*If we are not misinformed, several of the leading hospitals of New York, in deference to this superstition, omit 13 in numbering their beds.—Ed. Nation.

After the remarkable collections of instruments of torture in Munich and Nuremberg, Prof. Mantegazza's rather meagre array of inventions illustrating cruelty attracts but little attention, save for two or three of its items; such, for instance, as a sword-belt of tanned human skin (No. 812), and a mummified forearm (No. 858) from New Caledonia used as a summons to a cannibal orgy. Among the prison-chains, also, one sees (No. 645) a set of gyves, said to have come from the hideous prison of the Bargello, where visitors are now shown Giotto's celebrated fresco-portrait of the youthful Dante, so long hidden under a coat of whitewash. Not less interesting is a set of woodcuts representing conventional modes of torture, and others not known even to readers of Fox's 'Book of Martyrs.' Side by side with these, I found the bound numbers of *La Lidia: Revista Taurina* (Madrid, 1888), and one or two cheap handkerchiefs from Seville with pictures relating to bull-fighting. It need hardly be added that poniards, stilettoes, and iron-knuckles find their proper place in this department.

Much the weakest part of the museum is that relating to Vanity, in two or three cases imperfectly filled. The specimens for the most part might be considered as a sly satire on women, for they include chiefly mechanical devices for aiding or correcting nature in the matter of beauty of figure, most of which, by the way, are now lamentably out of date—even in the eyes of a man. It was this department which stirred the susceptibilities of the correspondent above referred to. Masculine vanity, however, comes in for its share in an exhibit which the reader will be surprised to hear was bought for one hundred francs. This is the outfit and insignia of a grand master of the Masonic Order, of the genuineness of which there can be no manner of doubt. Freemasonry still plays so important a part in the political affairs of Italy that one might almost suspect a covert sarcasm here; but the seriousness of the collection puts this out of the question. Still, without any injustice to the teaching profession, it will readily be believed that No. 1487 (the last in the catalogue) gave the dignified curators of the museum a little thrill of malicious pleasure, as it did, indeed, the present writer. It consists of a thin pamphlet setting forth the testimonials received by Professor G. C. of Turin, on the twenty-fifth anniversary of his occupancy of a chair in the University—all these honors, from the crowned heads of Europe and the highest of academic dignitaries, having been decreed to himself (*decretati a se stesso*) by the alleged recipient. There can be no indiscretion in revealing to American readers the existence of a bogus manifesto which a short time ago increased considerably the labors of several hundred postmen on this continent.

According to the founder of this museum, the Love of Property admits of illustration by means of locks and keys, and also by "burglarious" contrivances for overcoming these obstacles. Although several of the specimens have artistic merit as examples of forged ironwork, it is a surprise to the visitor not to find among them a single product of contemporary locksmithing; nor, so far as one unlearned in these matters could judge, would the pick-locks and skeleton keys be likely to do dangerous service in our day.

As for Caricature, which appears as a separate division, in two large cases, the principal result on the visitor's mind is to confirm his belief that there is no accounting for the vagaries of the sense of humor in the human race. Even Callot's sardonic distortions of his fellows' countenances, and still more the clever series of drawings by Cham, entitled "Les Tortures de la Mode," fill one with wonder that such exaggerations could ever have raised a smile, and almost with regret that such artistic skill should have been wasted on subjects so hopelessly ephemeral in their interest as the fashions of a day. The impression is deepened by the collection of political satires and caricatures, chiefly relating to Italy. In our eyes there is neither very bitter satire nor profound humor in a coin of ten centesimi, bearing an effigy of Victor Emmanuel in full pontifical canonicals; and probably in a few centuries such a joke as this will appear quite as vapid as a comedy of Aristophanes now does to the uninitiated. Besides these, the department of Caricature contains a set of small terracotta busts, each of which represents a human type, of a disposition or a profession—the haughty man, the drunkard, the angry man, the waiter, and so on. This collection was rather dear at one hundred and fifty francs, for a more undeniably conventional set of faces it would be difficult to find; they remind one of the plates in Lavater's 'Physiognomy.'

"Sentimenti Diversi" is a most convenient expression for lumping together a large number of odd objects not readily classifiable; and the reader must not imagine that the title stands for "Mixed Motives." Had such a denomination as the latter been adopted, probably not a single specimen of the museum but would have admitted of classification under this head, thus producing in the catalogue a perfectly bewildering labyrinth of cross-references. But there is obviously some difficulty in deciding the exact place to be occupied by such an object as the following: A small casket containing relics of the "illustrious martyr," accompanied by a letter dated "Longwood, 18th June, 1861," and signed "Gauthier de Rougemont." Its contents are:

"1. Une petite bouteille d'eau puisée à la fontaine où allait se désaltérer le César des Césars, dans sa promenade à la vallée du Géranium, aujourd'hui vallée du Tombeau.
"2. Feuilles de saule du tombeau du plus grand des capitaines.
"3. Morceau de bois de la muraille contre laquelle s'est appuyée la tête de l'Empereur.
"4. Un second morceau pris au niveau de la tête de l'Empereur," etc., etc.

In default of immediate personal relics, such as hair, buttons, or shreds of clothing, the sentiment of hero-worship attaches value to strange things indeed; but one feels inclined to recommend to collectors of this stamp the careful perusal of Calverley's poem on the cherry-stones dropped by H. R. H. the present Prince of Wales, which some of his loyal subjects, one day to be, picked up as they fell from the august lips.

Passing by the beginnings of an Advertisement collection, from which Chéret and his imitators are rather conspicuously absent, one is attracted by a large case in the middle of the front room, which, in spite of the gruesome nature of its contents, no one can fail to examine with very particular attention, for, so far as the present writer knows, this is absolutely unique. It is an array of bits of human skin admirably mounted,

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varying in area from two to three or four inches square, tattooed in a great variety of patterns, and representing the custom of dermal inscription both in savage and in civilized countries. The ticket, *Sentimento Religioso*, at the end of the case, does not refer to all of these; tattooing, as every one knows, being practised from a great variety of motives, among which vanity plays a prominent part. This collection is so complete, and the specimens with their inscriptions are so excellently preserved, that a separate paper would be required to do it appropriate justice.

Lastly, in a cabinet which is very judiciously closed to the public, there is found a small exhibition of objects representative of the human appetencies, normal and abnormal, which the French fiction of the last 150 years has exploited, for literary and business purposes, with so much regrettable pertinacity and still more regrettable success.

It would be quite foreign to the purpose of this sketch to offer long discussion on Prof. Mantegazza's scheme and its execution. The museum is admittedly a mere beginning, which in all likelihood is destined to be an end also. Who, indeed, would have the courage to undertake the complete exposition of human character and disposition with the help of purely objective, symbolical means? The world is all before him, where to choose. Doubtless, from time to time, presentations and gifts will add to the collection, but the practically minded men who direct the application of the finances of public instruction in Italy are much more inclined to notice what seems chimerical in the plan than to recognize the singular originality of the conception. Besides, for actual teaching purposes, the most perfect of "psychological museums" would be little better than useless. Here would certainly be the occasion for echoing Prof. Ladd's warning, "If you would be true psychologists, leave your books, laboratories, and museums, and study the daily life which your fellows lead alongside of you." The true psychological museum is the world itself, of which uniform classification remains impossible, since, as has been said, no two human beings ever dichotomize the universe at the same point.

In conclusion, the writer desires to offer his very sincere thanks to Signor Ettore Regalia, assistant curator of the museum for the generous way in which catalogue, keys, etc., were placed at his disposal. This is only one item in the large debt of gratitude owed by the writer to several of the eminent men composing the staff of the University of Florence. P. T. L.

# Correspondence.

## WILL AND SHALL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: All lovers of correct speech and writing will have read with pleasure the remarks of "A Super-Octogenarian" on the misuse of *will* and *shall*. This misuse is perpetually cropping up, sometimes in the most unexpected places. I could name more than one "monthly" of large circulation and good standing which misuses these little words about as often as they can, and, to judge by the correspondence in its educational journal, one of our largest cities has a number of high-school teachers who hold themselves *super grammaticam* with respect to *will* and *shall*, *would* and *should*—if they know it; while too many school-teachers everywhere seem to consider such sentences as "We *will* confidently expect you" correct in both speech and writing.

But I would venture to ask "A Super-Octogenarian" whether, when he wrote "Schoolmasters *had* made haste to make (the correction), . . . fearing their pupil *will* be told," it would not have been more grammatical to write "fearing" they "*would* be told"? It may also be observed that neither the mnemonic quatrain nor the Scotsman's mistakes furnish a complete guide to the proper use. The use in interrogative clauses, for example, requires special treatment.

Yours very respectfully, C. J. Gedge.

Berkeley, Cal.

# Notes.

Memorials of William Cranch Bond, Director of the Harvard Observatory, 1840-59, and of his son and successor (1859-65) George Phillips Bond, drawn from the family papers, have been prepared in a single volume, well illustrated, by Prof. Edward S. Holden of Lick Observatory. It will be issued in a small edition by C. A. Murdock & Co., 532 Clay Street, San Francisco (New York: Lemcke & Buechner).

Henry Frowde, 91 Fifth Avenue, is about to publish for the Egypt Exploration Fund part of a papyrus book found some 120 miles south of Cairo on the edge of the Libyan Desert; a single leaf, consisting of *Logia*, or Sayings, of Jesus, detached and without context. The writing is uncial and very clear, and will be reproduced by the collotype process. A cheaper edition for wide circulation is contemplated. The collection may date from the second century.

The Clarendon Press is publishing a short account of the newly discovered portions of the Hebrew text of Ecclesiasticus (xxxix., 15—xlix., 11). Dr. Neubauer and Mr. Cowley, the editors of the recently issued facsimile, are the authors of these prefatory remarks, and of a prose translation from the Hebrew original which they introduce. This translation is printed with the revised version of 1895 on the opposite page. The two versions are placed so as to correspond line for line as far as possible. By this means certain omissions and blunders committed in the Greek translation and inevitably reproduced in the revised version, become apparent. In chapter xliv., v. 4, the second part of the second couplet was omitted in the Septuagint; a whole couplet is lacking in xlii., v. 11, so that verse 12 seems to introduce a new subject, and is hopelessly obscure. The most important further omissions appear in xxxix., vs. 20 and 21, in xli., v. 9, xiv., v. 25, and in xlvi., vs. 13 and 19.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. have seized the opportunity to present to English readers the remarkable Polish novel, 'Demoiselle Micia,' by Mrs. Margaret Poradowska, of which mention was lately made in these columns. Miss Hapgood will be the translator.

The Century Company will issue in the autumn Bishop Potter's 'The Scholar and the State,' Mary Hartwell Catherwood's 'The Days of Jeanne d'Arc,' and a child's book on the same heroine, illustrated in color by Boutet de Monvel.

The first fall publications announced by G. P. Putnam's Sons are 'Impressions of Turkey during Twelve Years' Wanderings,' by Prof. W. M. Ramsay; 'The Story of the Palatines,' by the Rev. Sanford H. Cobb; 'Some Colonial Homesteads and their Stories,' by Marion Harland; 'Chronicles of Tarrytown and Sleepy Hollow,' by Edgar Mayhew Bacon; and a 'Life of Ambroise Paré,' by Stephen Paget.

Henry Holt & Co. have just issued a book of some 280 pages that will be greeted with joy by those French instructors who use, or are intending to adopt, a scientific method of teaching French pronunciation. The work is called 'Chrestomathie Française,' and has been prepared by Professor Rambeau of Johns Hopkins and Jean Passy, a brother of the distinguished French phonetician. It consists of assorted texts, representing many styles and various degrees of difficulty, printed both in the standard spelling and in a phonetic transcription, and preceded by a brief introductory chapter on French sounds. The phonetic alphabet used is that of the *Maître Phonétique*. The composition of a work of this sort demands an enormous expenditure of time and careful labor; and as the sales will necessarily be (for a long time, at least) extremely small, the gratitude of all phoneticians is due to the disinterested efforts of the compilers.

We are reminded afresh by 'The Story of Butte,' an illustrated special edition, in pamphlet form, of the Butte *Bystander*, of the opportunity such crude histories afford foreign students of our growth and institutions of getting at the very pulse of the machine. Where the greatest mining city in the world now stands, there was not a habitation in 1864; and in 1875, as a panoramic photographic view of the period shows, the settlement numbered probably less than a hundred houses. Its population now numbers 45,000, and it has in thirty years produced $300,000,000 in precious metals. But most valuable in this history is the long line of portraits, with biographic sketches annexed, in which the American physiognomy and character as affected by the Western environment are so instructively exhibited. They typify the men who are now in the saddle, politically speaking, wielding through the Senate of the United States an utterly disproportionate power to shape the national policy and to fix the national tone. They are worth scrutinizing even to the very cut of their hair.

The ready-made reading-notice sent out with the July number of *Godey's Lady's Book* asserts that the magazine celebrates the beginning of its sixty-eighth year by the issue of an anniversary number, the title cover of which is a reproduction of the first cover ever used by the magazine. But the cover so reproduced in no way resembles the original, which was a plain piece of printer's work without aid from the engraver, the only words in large type being "The Lady's Book." "Godey's" did not form part of the title till several years later. The cover now given, with the interpolation of the original date (1830), was first used about 1855.

The new fortnightly review, *La Diplomatie* (Paris, 50 Boulevard Haussmann), appears to have taken its crease, and is to be described as a quarto, with a pictorial cover containing the portrait of some sovereign or other personage; and made up in-

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ternally of an editorial review of the politico-diplomatic situation the world over, regular foreign correspondence in the same line, and an agreeable miscellany concerning "mundane life," Parisian life, the theatre, finance, trade, science, literature, in a certain irregular constancy. This lighter portion is often illustrated with portraits. The recording of diplomatic documents the review will perhaps leave entirely to the *Mémorial Diplomatique*.

The railway from Loando into the interior of the Portuguese colony of Angola is now running as far as Ambaca, a distance of 225 miles. The construction of the road, according to the *Revue Scientifique*, has been entirely by negroes, under the direction of European engineers, mostly French. At the same time, technical instruction was given to the negroes so successfully that "it may be said that they manage the line at present," as well as form the personnel of the telegraph service and are the artisans in the workshops.

The progress made on the Great Siberian Railway during the year 1896, according to the official report to the Czar quoted in the Consular Reports for June, consisted mainly in the construction of 878 miles of roadbed, making the whole length of rails already laid, excluding stations and sidetracks, 2,262 miles. The work of providing for steam transport across Lake Baikal was also begun, and will be finished in 1898, when the railway will probably be completed to Irkutsk. Up to the present time, $38,045,388 has been appropriated.

In the same publication is an interesting account of the successful prevention of hailstorms by means of explosions. An owner of extensive vineyards in Austria has erected six stations on six prominent heights about his land, and commanding a territory of about two miles in extent. These stations each contain ten mortars loaded with 4¼ ounces of powder. At the first indication of a storm a corps of volunteers, consisting of neighbors who are also owners of small vineyards, hasten to the stations and shoot the sixty mortars regularly and simultaneously until the clouds are scattered. In one of six instances last summer "the cloud wall opened up funnel-like, the mouth of the funnel began to rise in the form of consecutive rings, expanding gradually until all of the clouds scattered and entirely disappeared. There was no hail or even a sudden downpour of rain."

The annual report of the State Geologist of New Jersey for the year 1896 is a thick volume of varied contents and exceptional interest. Much of it (and not the least valuable part) is in continuation of past research. Such is the report of progress in the investigation of the surface geology of the State, conducted by Messrs. Salisbury and Knapp and now practically concluded; the fresh list of artesian wells by Lewis Woolman, accompanied by an account of recent significant discoveries of fossils in the Fish House black clays; Mr. Vermeule's notes on the great flood of February 6, 1896, in northern New Jersey. Quite new, and possessing a real economic and sanitary importance, is the last-named writer's engineering scheme for the drainage of the Hackensack and Newark tide-marshes—a problem of a kind in which New Jersey abounds, viz., How far is this a State matter, properly to be executed at the general expense? Or, if a local concern, how to unite in it the communities directly interested? There can be little doubt that the proposed redemption of the marshes would be a profitable undertaking apart from its indirect beneficial effects. Numerous maps and sections and other illustrations enrich this volume.

While our effete republic is first filling the new posts in the National Library politically and then "covering them into the civil service," the effete Italian monarchy is holding a competitive examination for assistant librarians in the Government public libraries, under article 122 of the statute regulating those institutions.

The valuable Necrology annually prepared for the Alumni Association of Andover Theological Seminary by its Secretary, the Rev. C. C. Carpenter, records the death of thirty former members of the institution, the smallest number for any year hitherto reported. Owing to three deaths at unusually early ages, the average duration of life is reduced to seventy years; but there were nine deaths at over eighty and seven between seventy and eighty. Perhaps the best known of those who passed away was Dr. A. H. Quint; but Prof. Blaisdell of Beloit College and the Rev. Luther Farnham, the Secretary of the General Theological Library in Boston, filled important positions. A list of the addresses of the present members of the Association accompanies the Necrology, and if the membership can be enlarged to an extent sufficient to justify the expense, a full list of the addresses of all living alumni will be prepared for publication next year. The annual fee of membership is one dollar, the payment of which entitles the member to receive the publications of the Seminary, including the next general catalogue, to be issued probably in 1900. Remittance may be made to the Treasurer, the Rev. W. L. Ropes, Andover, Mass.

Among the Jubilee honors given in England, some are not without interest to Americans. Mr. Maxwell Lyte, the deputy keeper of the records, has been made a Knight of the Bath. The Grand Cross of the same order has been conferred upon Sir Arthur Haliburton, the Under-Secretary for War, who is a son of "Sam Slick." Sir Arthur is a native of Nova Scotia.

—The *Century* for July contains some entertaining illustrated articles on Sport—"After Big Game in Africa and India," by H. W. Seton-Karr; "Hunting the Jaguar in Venezuela," by William Willard Howard; and "Sports in the Seventeenth Century," by W. A. Baillie-Grohman. The jaguar is not usually a very terrible beast, though Mr. Howard makes the most of him, and describes a curious way of destroying him, which sounds thoroughly Venezuelan. The hunter directs at him a long spear, at an angle of forty-five degrees, the butt of the shaft planted in the ground. The animal springs at the hunter, and impales himself on the spear, while his crafty enemy "dodges to one side and rolls over out of harm's way." The contrast of the popular European sports of the seventeenth century with those which Europeans to-day pursue in Asia and Africa, shows that we have opportunities of which our hunting ancestors hardly dreamed. John C. Van Dyke's "William Hogarth" is written to accompany three of Cole's new series of wood engravings after Old English Masters. There are a good many pictures by Joseph Pennell in this number, some illustrating a sketch by Mrs. Pennell, called "Play in London"; others, and better ones, an article on "The Churches of Poitiers and Caen," by Mrs. M. G. Van Rensselaer.

—Dr. Edward Waldo Emerson, in the *Atlantic*, publishes a correspondence between Sterling and Emerson, with a short sketch, which altogether reveals clearly not only these two idealists of a day now past, but, by way of vivid contrast, their friend Carlyle. The letters breathe an atmosphere of friendship and purity and at the same time of complete abstraction from the world. As we get further away from the period to which they belong, we grow more and more out of literary sympathy with the feelings and conceptions that underlie what is said. We clearly comprehend that Sterling thinks that "there are hardly, perhaps, three Englishmen living with the slightest thought of what art is," and cannot help thinking that he felt that he stretched a point in admitting that there might be more than two. Then we read what Dr. Emerson calls Carlyle's "dismal summary" of Sterling's life, and wonder whether Sterling himself knew what art was. Aspiration is the one quality which breathes through the letters—the aspiration of lonely, yet humane saintship, eager for sympathy; and, perhaps, in a world that goes generally on its belly, this ought to be enough. But there is much more in the letters than this. Sterling's two Englishmen seem to have been Tennyson and Carlyle, though the former, he fears, "will hardly wake out of tobacco smoke into any sufficient activity"; the latter he calls "a gigantic anti-poet." Alvan F. Sanborn has a paper on the "Future of Rural New England," in which he describes the dead New England town—the antithesis of the "live" New England town as described by him in the May number. He adverts to one new feature of New England life which must in the course of time have a considerable influence on its character, though its full importance he does not, perhaps, appreciate—we mean the permeation of New England by city life, which establishes itself side by side with the old New England and more or less swamps it. "City people" are making homes in many parts of it for half the year, and thus bringing in capital and taste; the Episcopal Church, coming from the cities, is building pretty churches, and alienating the parishioners from the old barn-like Congregational church with its horse-sheds; dairy farms are being established which supply the city; good roads are demanded by "summer residents," and are being supplied by the State, a distant corporation, having its capital in a city. Yet the old political town-meeting machinery is still managed by the local assemblages of half-educated farmers, who look askance at all these innovations.

—The most important articles in *Scribner's* are on John Cabot, by the Marquis of Dufferin, who is chairman of the Cabot celebration committee, and on William Morris, by Walter Crane. Both are illustrated, and the former is accompanied by curious maps and facsimiles. Besides these, "Cavendish" gives utterance to some wisdom on the subject of "Whist Fads," which will probably please equally well those who play a good game and those who play little and care less. "The Modern Business Building," by J. Lincoln Steffens (illustrated), is the

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fifth of a series of papers on the "Conduct of Great Businesses," by various hands, all of which are more or less entertaining. Mr. Steffens touches on the extraordinary changing "sky-line" of New York, such as, thanks to the topography of Manhattan Island, in combination with tall buildings, exists nowhere else in the world. Another paper on "Undergraduate Life," this time at Yale, by Henry E. Howland, gives a good deal of amusing local information. Mr. C. D. Gibson's "London" continues to be illustrated by sketches from life.

—Capt. James Parker, U. S. A., contributes to *Harper's* for July an interesting article on West Point "as an element in the system of national defence." Assuming that the object of a military academy is not simply to furnish officers for our little regular army (it is also assumed that a large standing army is out of the question), but to furnish a reserve of highly educated officers in case of need, he says that we have no adequate reserve. In 1812 the maximum of cadets was fixed at 260, the population being then 7,500,000, or at one cadet for every 30,000 population. The population is now not far from 75,000,000, while the maximum number of cadets allowed is only 370. In time of war we should have only some 1,400 West Point officers to count upon, and as the size of armies has enormously increased in the last thirty years, we may be said to be worse equipped for war in this important respect than we were in 1860. Capt. Parker thinks that in case of any actual fighting we should require at least 16,000 officers (*i. e.*, to officer 400,000 troops) of which the Military Academy ought to supply half. To produce 8,000 available graduates, six times the present number of cadets should be under instruction. To accomplish this end, he would have two additional military academies, one in the West and one in the South, for he says "the facilities at West Point could not easily be enlarged to accommodate this number of cadets"; and he would have appointments based on competitive examinations, as in the civil service. All this seems, on paper, plain sailing, but the difficulty arises when the question is asked, How are we to dispose of the graduates? As the army is not to be increased, there will be something like three graduates for every commission. Now a commission is the prize which draws young men to West Point, yet the author sees no way out of his difficulty but the discharge of all the superfluous cadets as soon as they shall have completed a term of service, say six months, with their regiment. This inevitably suggests a doubt whether the diminished chance of getting anything more than an education out of the course would still be sufficiently attractive to draw young men. Capt. Parker makes several suggestions of detail, but evidently speculation will not solve the main question, which is, how far the success of West Point is dependent on what is now its main feature—the certainty that a young man who succeeds there will get a commission for life. Capt. Parker's arguments apply, *sub modo*, to the army itself, as well as to the academy. That is, if our reserve of officers should grow, so should our *cadre* of men. In actual war a trained professional nucleus in the ranks gives steadiness to raw soldiers, just as trained officers create the army. The whole question is interesting, but Capt. Parker's treatment of it is not for Jingoes.

—Students, teachers, and readers of history will alike be grateful to Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart for his 'American History Told by Contemporaries' (Macmillan), of which the first of four volumes has recently appeared. If we may judge from the present volume, the plan of the series contemplates a collection of extracts from representative contemporary writers, arranged at once chronologically and topically, and intended to illustrate the social, economic, and political life of the people rather than to narrate the events of their history. The first volume deals with the era of colonization, from 1492 to 1689, the illustrative selections being grouped under the heads of Norse, Spanish, English, French, and Dutch discoveries, the conditions of colonization (as regards its reasons, its regulation, and the character of the emigrants themselves), and, finally, the separate colonies in order, and the general characteristics of the Southern, Middle, and New England sections. The extracts, of which there are one hundred and fifty-seven, are short, few exceeding three or four pages in length. Each is prefaced by a few lines of introduction, with bibliographical references; there is also a useful general introduction on the sources and their use. Legal and constitutional documents are, as a rule, excluded, and the purely literary merit of the pieces chosen has been a secondary consideration. The volume has a good index, and a consolidated index to the series is promised. It is, of course, obvious that the preparation of a work of this character is primarily a matter of selection, for the available material is very great, and the judgment and skill of the editor will be shown as much by what he omits as by what he includes. Professor Hart has drawn his illustrative extracts from a wide range; we have most of the better known pieces, besides many familiar only to students, while the selection as a whole calls only for praise. Some more general comments suggested by the appearance of the work we reserve until the publication of the series shall have reached a more advanced stage; we do not hesitate, however, to commend the undertaking as likely to prove of indispensable usefulness in the study of American history.

—Writing from London, on the 2d inst., a correspondent says:

"The executive committee are busily engaged in making preparations for the coming conference of librarians, at which about 300 librarians from the United States are expected to be present. The meetings of the conference will take place in the famous Guildhall of London. Sir John Lubbock will be the President, and, in his absence, it is probable that Mr. Justin Winsor of Harvard will be moved into the chair. About thirty-seven papers have already been set down on the agenda. Twenty minutes will be allowed for a paper, and five minutes to a speaker taking part in a discussion. The conference will be opened at the Guildhall on Monday, the 12th, with a *conversazione*, and the reading of a paper by Dr. Garnett, C. B., the Keeper of Printed Books at the British Museum. The members will on the same evening be entertained by the Savage Club. On Tuesday they will be given a welcome by the Lord Mayor of London, at 10:30 A. M. From four to seven P. M. there will be a reception by the President and Court of Governors of that clerical institution known as Sion House, where are many old books relating to the English colonies in America. That same evening there will be a reception, by the Lord Mayor, at the Mansion House, from nine to eleven. On Wednesday, the 14th, the members will be entertained at a garden party, from four to seven, by the Marchioness of Bute. From ten to twelve o'clock that evening they will be given a reception in St. James's Square by Lady Lubbock. On Thursday, the 15th, there will be a visit to the library of Brook House, Park Lane, the town residence of Lord Tweedmouth, brother of the wife of the Governor-General of Canada. During the same hours there will be a visit to Apsley House, the residence of the Duke of Wellington, and there will be afternoon tea at Grosvenor House, with the Duke of Westminster, London's principal landlord, as host. At eight that evening there will be a special performance of 'The Merchant of Venice' at the Lyceum. On Friday, the 16th, there will be a visit to Lambeth Palace, the Archbishop of Canterbury's London house, where will be an exhibition of books and manuscripts. During the same hours Stafford House will be thrown open to members by the Duke of Sutherland, and London House by the Bishop of London. These are not all the junketings that are contemplated. Moreover, the department of science and art of the British Museum and the Public Record Office are to be made specially accessible to the participators in the conference, and they are to be made free of the Zoölogical Gardens from Sunday, the 16th, to the Saturday following. Of London clubs, the City Liberal, the Junior Athenæum, the National Liberal, and the Savage will open their doors to the male members, and the gentler sex will be welcomed by the Alexandra."

## MASPERO'S STRUGGLE OF THE NATIONS.

*The Struggle of the Nations:* Egypt, Syria, and Assyria, by G. Maspero, Hon. D. C. L. and Fellow of Queen's College, Oxford, Member of the Institute, and Professor at the College of France. Edited by A. H. Sayce, Professor of Assyriology, Oxford. Translated by M. L. McClure. D. Appleton & Co. 1897. Pp. xii, 794. $7.50.

This book continues 'The Dawn of Civilization,' by the same author. It begins with the period of early contact and conflict between Babylonia and the western edge of Asia, and between Asia and Northern Africa. The date cannot be precisely fixed. When all the witnesses shall have been heard, it seems probable that a much earlier time will be accepted for these first contacts (at least those between Babylonia and the west) than Maspero contemplates in this volume. Professor Sayce, in his preface, refers with reason to the increasing antiquity of our sources, and the increasing clearness with which authenticity and trustworthiness may be ascribed to them. Dates of 5000 B. C. for early Babylonian civilization, and of 4000 for regular intercourse with Syria, in war and peace, now seem moderate. It is not a ground of criticism that Professor Maspero's statements already need modification here. It is only an evidence of the restless and rapid course of enlarging knowledge in our time. The author's endeavor has been to make use of the latest discussions. To a remarkable degree he has done so. All the recognized authorities in Assyriology and Egyptology are represented in his abundant notes; the references are given with care, and various opinions fairly stated. Even Mr. Petrie's discovery of "Israilû" on an Egyptian stele of Mînephtah's time finds a place (pp. 436-443).

Maspero has some unusual qualifications for such work as he has undertaken. He has large knowledge as an Egyptologist, familiarity with the literature bearing on the rest of his field, the historical instinct, the power of combination, the gift of

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pictorial narrative. The result is a work of comprehensive scope and sound basis, truthful, in the main accurate, and in a high degree attractive. Its abundant maps and illustrations—four hundred and more—increase its fitness for the intelligent public for whom it is designed. Some of them have exceptional value, even for those already well informed. Notwithstanding the abundant footnotes and citations of authorities, the aim of the work is essentially popular. The author does not usually debate points about which scholars are disagreed. He gives different views, and often selects one, but does not argue it out. His work is not of the same kind with that of Wiedemann, Tiele, and Müller; Eduard Meyer's 'Geschichte des Alterthums,' which covers much the same ground, is more suggestive and stimulating for students, and a better guide to investigation, although a book a dozen years old is in this field no longer modern. Maspero attracts by the breadth of his canvas and the interest of his subjects, by the artistic grouping of his materials, the lucidity of his style, and the aptness and profuseness of his illustrations. His, then, is a book for a gentleman's library more than for a specialist's table or shelf.

It is noticeable that Egypt occupies the largest amount of space. This is due partly to the fact that the period covered in the volume includes the golden age of Egypt, the time of its greatest glory, political, architectural, literary. It is due partly to the resulting abundance and variety of material at hand, inscriptions, public and private, secular and religious, drawings and carvings of many kinds, objects of use and of ornament, permitting a fulness of description of military operations, household life, and common social phenomena such as we have as yet from no other ancient people. The unwrapping of the royal mummies, of itself, gives an opportunity for individual portraiture and characterization which no writer is at liberty to neglect. If an additional reason for the prominence given to Egypt be found in the special familiarity and independent competence of the author with reference to this department of his subject, it is only natural that it should be so. No doubt he has conscientiously endeavored to be impartial, and do full justice to each branch of his subject. The wonder is not that he occasionally fails, but that he so largely succeeds. It is in no fault-finding spirit that we express the wish that he might, *e. g.*, have dwelt a little more upon the early Babylonian culture, even if he could not portray it with the lingering affection which he devotes to that of Egypt in the long chapter entitled "The Close of the Theban Empire."

The pages occupied with Phœnicia and Syria (in the broad sense) are sufficiently full for the purpose. The author assumes a modest attitude toward the "Hittite" question. He seems rather less at home in Hebrew history than elsewhere. His work here contains frequent quotations and paraphrases from the Old Testament, and, for the rest, follows to a large extent Renan's 'Histoire du Peuple d'Israël,' although mildly, and without the ostentation of patronage which marks the attitude of that charming writer toward the Scripture narratives. He carries the Hebrew history down to the death of Ahab. The building of the nation, with its preliminaries, and the first two hundred years of the monarchy are covered, in a painstaking way. But the treatment is rather meagre and sometimes external. For example, we ought to hear more of the conflict between the unifying influence of the Yahweh religion and the centrifugal force of tribal and local prejudices. Besides things of this kind, in the author's desire not to bring in critical discussions which are still *sub lite*, he (or the translator for him, see below) leaves it sometimes obscure how far the paraphrases and quotations he makes from the Old Testament represent his view of the real history, and, on the other hand, while no one would ask for an equal space in such a work as this for the Hebrews as for the Egyptians, it would seem that some of the critical positions taken demand, for consistency, more statement of reasons or reference to authorities than we actually find.

One single danger Maspero has escaped. His general critical attitude is well known, but Prof. Sayce's name on the title-page occasions the fear lest that scholar's opinion as to the opposition between archæological science and the literary criticism of the Old Testament might have found a representative in France also, in Maspero's person. Happily there is no indication that this is the case. He does not even allude to the possibility of the acquirement of literary culture by the Israelites on their march from Sinai (!), nor in any other way do his own views lend aid to the reactionaries.

A few details may be noticed. One is surprised to read that the submerging of the cities of the plain "doubled the size of the" Dead Sea (p. 63). Maspero can hardly be thought wise in following Renan with the identification of the Haran of Gen. xi. 31, 32 and "the Syrian town Haurân": on the other hand, he shows a discreet caution in saying (p. 325) that a "monotheistic conception" of the religious innovations of Amenôthes IV. "does not seem to me [him] to be fully justified, at least at present, by anything in the materials we possess." The "Israîlû" of Minephtah (p. 443) is presented with its variety of possible interpretations, but the impression left is one of uncertainty, and indeed the whole section dealing with the Exodus is vague. On pp. 479, 480 it takes a second reading of the account of the punishment denoted by the phrase "they died of themselves" to perceive the relation between the opinions expressed in the note and that of the author in the text. Pages 573 ff. contain a brief account of views as to the origin of the Phœnician alphabet. No decision is announced, but the only table given is that of the hieratic signs with alleged Phœnician and Greek equivalents. We miss on p. 787 some allusion to the connection between Ahab's treaty with Benhadad and the impending Assyrian invasion, but perhaps this will be considered in a later volume. This seems to be promised (p. 786), and may be expected to carry on the history from the ninth century B. C., of which the present volume touches only the earlier part. The sequel is sure in advance of a hearty welcome.

The translator's work is for the most part done so as to make the book very readable, and seldom to suggest the foreign idiom. "Traitorously" (p. 687) should rather be "treacherously." The attempt of the translator to stem the tide of criticism as to the mode of Sisera's death is rather plaintive and ineffectual. The reference to "C. Trumbull" and the PEF Quarterly Statement (p. 447) instead of to Dr. Henry Clay Trumbull's elaborate volume on Kadesh-Barnea is apparently from the original.

An article in the *Athenæum* for January 2, 1897, under the signature "Verax," charged upon the translator various omissions and alterations in parts referring to the Bible, made apparently in the interest of traditional as opposed to critical opinions. The existence of these omissions and alterations is unquestioned; they have been justified (in the *Athenæum* and in the London *Daily News*) by the Secretary of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, under whose auspices the volume appears, on two grounds: first, that "it was our desire merely to soften certain expressions out of regard for the susceptibilities of English readers"; and secondly, that Prof. Maspero gave permission to make the changes. If Prof. Maspero accepts the changes as representing his views, the translator must be absolved of the charge of *mis*representing him. But there is still a responsibility to the English-reading public, and a curious question as to the reason for certain discriminations. Enough criticism is left to make sad havoc with the views currently understood to be represented by the S. P. C. K., and one wonders whether these slender modifications mark the limit of Prof. Maspero's good-nature. On the other hand, the effect of the changes is to weaken the statement of critical positions and to introduce a mistiness of view. That this has been done in the translation ought certainly to have been stated, at least in the preface. But what a commentary it is upon the confidence of good people in the truth of history that a great publishing society thinks it necessary to coddle and protect its grown-up readers by devices like this!

## THE WIFE OF WASHINGTON.

*Martha Washington.* By Anne Hollingsworth Wharton. With portrait and facsimile. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1897.

Out of a few letters, most of which have been "edited" beyond recognition, a few relics, and many legends, the life of Martha Washington must be written. From material so slight as to give only occasional glimpses of the wife and almost no indication of the real woman, her character and equipment for the positions she was called upon to fill must be inferred, and without regard to the husband from whose light she derived her lustre. A mere clothing with all graces and fine qualities will result in presenting a puppet or overdressed doll; an intimation that she was a commonplace housekeeper will be resented as unpatriotic as it is unjust. Somewhere between these extremes the truth lies, and this latest attempt to draw an accurate picture of Martha Washington may be praised for its serious tone and its appreciation of feminine qualities. One essential is wanting, for it is the "Lady Washington" of tradition rather than the mistress of Mount Vernon and the wife of the first President that is delineated.

Nor is it strange that the attempt should fall short of success, for a good biography needs something more than mere research and a record of dinners and levees. Martha Dandridge was not different from other Virginia women of the last century. The social system of the colony was coördinated to

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produce great as well as good women, and it is ridiculous to reason that because Washington was a great man, his wife must have been an extraordinary woman. Of the many great men that Virginia produced in the last century—the product, it must be remembered, of conditions peculiar to the colony—nearly all possessed as good wives as Washington, and yet it does not follow that there is abundant material for a new "Female Plutarch." The woman was the helpmeet, and doubtless bore her share in the anxieties and perils of the day; but her part is not to be described in the formal periods of history, however lovable may have been her qualities or noble her sacrifices.

In this respect Martha Dandridge stands in no prominence among her companions. Of a family which did little to distinguish itself, and which did not rank among the leading families of the colony, her early life was spent in the surroundings of a slave plantation. That fine women could come from that atmosphere, we know; but little attention was paid to education beyond the household arts of sewing and managing the shiftless and wasteful service of negroes, with dancing and a little music as accomplishments. A round of visits among the neighboring planters, an occasional visit to Williamsburg, with a presentation at the court of the often not very savory representative of the King, completed the necessary education of a girl, and she was then ready to receive offers of marriage. The glamour thrown by romance around the life on a tobacco plantation is dispelled by an examination of the farm accounts which reveal the pressure of the almost inevitable debts of the planter. Martha Dandridge was fortunate, for she early married a plain planter of New Kent, who inherited property, and, on his death, left her so well provided for that she was known as the "richest widow" in the colony. Of four children by this marriage, two died in infancy, and the two who lived became the wards of Washington when, after two years of widowhood, Mrs. Custis married the young Virginia officer.

Obscure as had been her life before this event, it became eventful only through Washington's career. The loss of her daughter and marriage of her son were the only notable events before the Revolution. From that time, mention of her doings becomes more frequent, and some little evidence is given of the impression made upon those who met or knew her. Her simple manners, plain style of living, her industry and perfect sincerity, and her compassion for the trials of the soldiers in the time of war are the prominent characteristics most dwelt upon. Later, and on the return of peace, as mistress at Mount Vernon, or as wife of the first President of the United States, she lived more in public view, but no additional characteristics are developed. Her home duties were many and exacting, and there is no question of her having performed them completely and without complaint. As the "lady of the President" she was somewhat isolated socially, and a natural reserve added to the dignity which appertained to the station. But it is not true that "the Washingtons quietly and unostentatiously mapped out their social duties according to their own ideas of propriety." That matter was made the subject of solemn questions submitted to the Cabinet and the Vice-President, and was determined by equally solemn answers and opinions; and the result tended to excite that scurrilous journalism of the day which believed that the charge of being "monarchical" was fatal, and yet in attacking the President on that charge, spared the wife—an example which the scribblers of modern sensations might do well to imitate.

The restraint imposed upon her by these rules of etiquette, and the heavy demands made upon her time by the almost ceaseless round of visitors, proved irksome to Martha Washington, and it was with relief that she returned to Mount Vernon, where the care of the house and of her grandchildren was so congenial to her tastes. In her whole life there was no event worth relating; and in her character it is only the sterling qualities possessed by every good woman that call for notice. As an example, it is well to direct attention to her as a type; but it is hopeless to invest her career with an interest peculiar to herself, or to distinguish her from the many whose fame as beauties or wits depends upon family tradition. As a result, it is still Washington who is the prominent figure in the book, and the uncertain tales of tottering memories serve only to pad out a story of the wife's uneventful career.

The most valuable part of the book is a very small number of Mrs. Washington's letters. That she wrote with difficulty is so well established that hardly a production of her own exists. It was her husband who drafted the letters for her use, and the formal sentences are very remote from her curt and easy phrases. What are properly attributed to Mrs. Washington prove her to have been devoid of humor or imagination, and are the straightforward and unadorned notes of one to whom composition was painful. Not a few of those printed in this volume have been so recast into modern form as to be unrecognizable as her own utterances, while others are clearly not of her writing. Some of the records of contemporaries are interesting, but the recollections of aged servants and of those who belonged to the succeeding generations are as uninteresting as they are unreliable. One such recollection is so little known that it will bear repeating, if only to serve as an example of what is gravely handed down as fact. Mrs. Boudinot, on being asked what she remembered of "Lady Washington," replied: "Oh, a child's recollections, my dear. I remember saying to my mother that I thought Lady W. a very dirty woman. She asked me why, and I said, 'Because she spits on the carpet, and her servant wipes it up with his pocket-handkerchief,' and she explained to me that it was not a handkerchief, but a napkin that he carried for that purpose." When the story of Mary Washington being in the habit of smoking a pipe is put with this, we begin to doubt the wisdom of written biographies that contain so large a proportion of oral tradition as does the work under review.

It is because the author of this biography has treated of historical records in other works that we are inclined to be severe on the many errors to be found in the present volume. The greatest freedom is taken with names, and the errors are such as could have been easily avoided. It is too late in the day to excuse Thompson as the spelling of the well-known Secretary of the Continental Congress. Lady Temple was not the wife of the "British Minister," for no minister of that name was appointed. The name of Mr. Daniel Huntington is twice misspelled. "Bouchier" is an incorrect spelling; G. W. P. Custis was not the "adopted son" of the General, but is three times described in the will as "my ward." "Fontleroy" is not the spelling given by Washington to his early flame; and the assertion that certain remarkable letters were addressed by Washington to Miss Mary Cary is against all evidence. It was Col. Wood, not "Ward," who represented Washington in his early election contest; the Bryan Fairfax place was Towlston, not "Towelston"; Magowan, Miralles, and Patey are the proper spellings for "Magowen," "Mirailles," and "Patcy." The author has discovered a number of officers, "favorites" of Washington, who have hitherto escaped the record of history—as, for example, Jacob Ford and Benjamin Grymes. It was Hodijah Baylies, not "Henry," who was an aid of Washington. The borrowing of "£10,000 for Washington's expenses before setting out for the capital" is magnified just one hundred times.

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*Bird-Life:* A Guide to the Study of Our Common Birds. By Frank M. Chapman. D. Appleton & Co. 1897. Small 8vo, pp. xii, 269, pll. 75, figs. 25.

*Wild Norway.* With Chapters on Spitsbergen, Denmark, etc. By Abel Chapman. Edward Arnold. 1897. Large 8vo, pp. xiv, 350, with 63 illustrations.

Mr. Chapman's recent 'Handbook,' which we found we could hardly praise too highly, is speedily followed by another volume of similar purpose, addressed to more juvenile readers. It is a good book—any book which this author should write about birds would be a good one—but it is less maturely considered than his former treatise, and must stand in the shadow of a standard of excellence which the author can accuse only himself of having already set up. Neither work will be likely to help the other much; they are too much alike not to interfere with each other, and the exceptional difficulty of writing acceptably for children may not prove to have been wholly overcome in this instance. How it has been met may be said in the author's own pleasant words (p. vi):

"The following pages are not addressed to past masters in ornithology, but to those who desire a general knowledge of bird-life and some acquaintance with our commoner birds. The opening chapters of this book briefly define the bird, its place in Nature, and its relation to man, and outline the leading facts in its life-history. The concluding chapters present the portraits, names, and addresses of upward of one hundred familiar birds of Eastern North America, with such information concerning their comings and goings as will lead, I trust, to their being found at home."

This plan is admirably conceived and well carried out; there is a particularly pleasing daintiness in its execution. The author has also been fortunate in his artist, Mr. Ernest Seton Thompson, who can draw birds with a technique superior to that of Mr. Fuertes in most respects, though lacking in a certain touch the latter can give his compositions. The work may be commended without reserve to those who, not finding their needs fully met by the same author's 'Handbook,' may desire something superior to the numerous ebullitions of diluted popular ornithology we have had recent occasion to criticise.

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Mr. Abel Chapman's three previous volumes of adventures in wild lands have made his name familiar as that of one of the keenest of sportsmen, who writes vividly of his experiences. The present work represents the mature results of sixteen years' exploits in the wilds of northern Europe, during which the Anglo-Norseman has made the most of his opportunities, and become a veteran whose story is well worth attention. "As regards salmon-fishing," he says, with rare modesty, "I write as an amateur, and the chapters thereupon should be read as the impressions of an enthusiast, rather than of an expert. In big-game hunting, having graduated in the craft since boyhood, I write with more confidence"; and, we may add, he can be followed with entire confidence in the verisimilitude of his narrative, regarded as a contribution either to adventure or to natural history. Reindeer and elk are of course the game which towers above all others in Norway; and the way in which these great creatures are brought before us, both with pen and pencil, is equalled only by the manner in which they were brought to book with the author's unerring rifle. The illustrations given of these animals are stronger and more life-like than any we remember to have seen before; the author says truly that "ten years ago nothing that was artistic was correct, and *vice versa*"; but Mr. Whymper has changed all that with remarkable fidelity to nature.

The necessary hardships of 'Wild Norway' can hardly be appreciated by one unfamiliar with the leading physical facts of that "land of fjeld and fjord." Half of it lies at an elevation of 2,000 feet or more; two-thirds of it is unproductive, and only an insignificant three per cent. of the whole country has been subdued by the agriculturist. To hunt there at all demands sacrifices which the author styles "infinite," and should be undertaken, or could be successfully prosecuted, only by the hardiest sort of men, who are careless of hardships, rough living, "and disappointments without end." Reindeer shooting is difficult enough to try any one's nerve and endurance, but there is hardly any large game in the world so difficult to overhaul and secure as the elk. Perhaps this is one of the reasons why, as we note with satisfaction, every part of these animals is utilized when one has been killed —in striking contrast to the wanton killing and woful waste which have always been the rule in our country, where elk and moose have been decimated, and buffalo practically exterminated. Statistics show for Norway for the years 1889-93 a yearly average of only 1,122 elks and 591 reindeer killed, not in the least endangering the perpetuity of either of these animals.

There is a curious little beast in Norway which does not loom up on the horizon like the giant elk, but has his points nevertheless. This is the lemming, whose portrait we must transcribe (p. 280):

"If his powers were proportioned to his pluck, the lemming would make things lively for the hunter. Had the bear, the lynx, or the mighty elk but a thousandth part of the lemming's aggressive ferocity, the relative positions of hunter and hunted would be reversed, and an expedition to the fjeld would require an advance guard of cavalry and a support of Maxim guns. The lemming attacks with reckless fury the harmless passer-by. One small creature (smaller than a rat) will assail, without second thought, a couple of human beings weighing 150 pounds apiece; it will spring to one's knees, biting and barking, and in purblind fury fall back all-ends-up to earth, only to renew the attack again and again."

This is the engaging creature so long famous for the irrepressibility of its migrations on so vast a scale that it was formerly fabled to fall from the clouds: witness the grave 'Historia animalis quod in Norvagia e nubibus decidit' of Olaus Wormius, 1653.

Mr. Chapman's book contains among other good things a great deal of ornithology, from the standpoint of the field naturalist. It would take us too far to specify his experiences with birds, game or other; but we must advert without animadversion to some remarkable statements he makes concerning migration. His position is substantially that of the late Herr Gätke regarding altitudes, velocities, and distances attained by many feeble-winged migrants. Here we must quote once more (p. 337):

"I am convinced that many birds of migratory habits are absolutely incapable, under normal conditions, of flying 300 miles, or anything like it. Among such I would include all short-winged warblers, chats, and goldcrests, quail, landrail, etc. . . . Yet, on the other hand, we have confronting us the solid fact that twice in every year these tiny creatures do traverse Europe from end to end."

He supports his contention with some remarkable facts concerning insect migrations over seas, and comes to the conclusion that some of the factors governing migration "have been overlooked, or yet remain to be discovered." This is scientific heresy; and orthodox believers will continue to hold the bird-seer of Heligoland for a Roman augur.

'Wild Norway' is certainly brought to us in a way which will make us glad to stay at home and read what Mr. Chapman has to say about it. The volume is well written, handsome in all its appointments, and well worthy of its place in the long series of fine books on similar subjects which the same publisher has issued.

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*Oberlin Thursday Lectures, Addresses, and Essays.* By James Monroe. Oberlin, O.: Edward J. Goodrich. 1897.

From these unpretentious discourses and articles one learns incidentally not a little concerning the author's personal history. He was a native of Connecticut, and was still in his father's farmhouse, a boy of eight, when Benjamin Lundy, in May or June, 1828, halted at the door in his pedestrian anti-slavery propaganda which was to bear its richest fruit in Boston. It bore good fruit even in the boy's case, for he was delivering anti-slavery addresses at twenty, and continued in that line till he sought education at Oberlin in 1844. In 1855 he was elected to the Ohio House of Representatives; in 1860 we find him a member of the State Senate. In 1862 President Lincoln appointed him Consul at the port of Rio de Janeiro, and he remained at that post till 1869. From 1871 to 1881, a stirring period, he was a Representative in Congress. He is now one of the professors of his alma mater.

We pick these items out of the truly impersonal reminiscences because the mere enumeration of them shows that Prof. Monroe's experience has many historical relations; and we will say at once that his book is of the sort which usefully supplement formal histories. For example, if one wished to gain an idea of the repressive influence commonly and professionally exerted by the Northern clergy upon the nascent anti-slavery movement, he could not do better than read of the way in which the "venerable Dr. Dow," in his own Congregational pulpit in Thompson, Conn., snubbed our youthful lecturer in 1841. It was as if, said the Doctor, the zealous stripling had awakened him at midnight crying "Fire!"

" 'Young man,' I ask, 'is the fire on this street?' 'No; fire! fire!' 'Is the fire anywhere on Thompson Hill?' 'No; fire! fire!' 'Well, is the fire in the State of Connecticut?' 'No; fire! fire!' Growing impatient, I exclaim, 'Well, young man, where *is* the fire?' At last the answer comes, 'Why, Dr. Dow, the fire is in Lou-is-i-a-ny!' As the Doctor concluded, the old church rang with peals of laughter."

We do not know whether there is a soldiers' monument in Thompson (one such hopelessly disfigures the neighboring village of Brooklyn), but if there is, it shows that the Louisiana fire reached Thompson Hill under circumstances not conducive to hilarity.

The "Thursday Lectures" open with portraits and estimates of the early abolitionists, the successors of Lundy; and these chapters, if not above criticism as a judgment of the lecturer's first associates, are to be praised for candor, and are especially valuable as a record of what is most elusive —the personal quality of public speaking. So far as the abolitionist speakers are concerned, we have no exception to take. Here is a very discriminating word concerning "the prince of all anti-slavery orators—I had almost said, the prince of all the orators I have ever known":

"Mr. Phillips was never described by the reporters and reviewers as being a logical speaker. I do not remember to have seen the familiar epithet 'argumentative' applied to his efforts, and do not suppose they suggested it. He was impatient of the slow, syllogistic processes. Such terms as 'major premise,' 'minor premise,' 'à priori,' 'à posteriori'—I might almost add 'therefore' and 'consequently'—he never used."

In fact, acting upon this hint, we have discovered but one *then* and one *therefore* in Mr. Phillips's unusually argumentative speech on the "Philosophy of the Abolition Movement." But it probably pertained to his rhetoric that he did not knit his logic with the common signs of nexus.

In a later chapter Prof. Monroe performs a similar service for the leading speakers in Congress in his time, giving first place to Blaine as the orator for immediate effect; ranking Garfield, who was no debater, high among the teachers, in which class he rightly places Sumner, who, too, "was not a debater, nor was he, in the sense used here, an orator," but a marvellous rhetorician.

For clear exposition, the chapter on the Hayes-Tilden Electoral Commission is to be commended; and that on Seward's conduct of foreign affairs does not exceed a fair measure of eulogy, though it overlooks the politician's frailties. We are glad to find our author perfectly alive to the hollow pretence of a continuity of principle between the Liberty party and the Free Soil and Republican parties. He was not himself ready to vote the Free Soil ticket in 1848, but he found the path to political satisfaction and optimism when he subsequently concluded to vote even with a half-loaf party, rather than eschew party instrumentalities altogether. His new resolution was severely tested when he went up to the first Republican General Assembly in Ohio in 1856. His

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abolition and Liberty party blood made him introduce an amendment to the State Constitution striking out the word "white" from the suffrage qualification. But Ohio Republicanism was by no means on that level, any more than Ohio lynch law is to-day.

"There were perhaps twenty-five Republicans in the House who would have voted with me in favor of this amendment, and it had been my intention to demand the yeas and nays upon its passage, and put everybody upon record. As the time approached, however, to do this, earnest representations were made to me by Republican members that it would do no good to call up the amendment for a final vote; that I knew as well as they did that it could not pass; that to insist upon a vote now would divide the party and produce bitter feeling; that it would commit against the amendment some candid men who were rather friendly to it, but had not yet fully made up their minds; that it would injure the prospects of some young members whose districts were so divided in opinion that for them to vote either way would be political ruin; that to push the issue further would drive the conservatives from our party, and give the next election to the Democrats; in fine, that public opinion was not ripe for negro suffrage, and that I must have the grace to wait. These arguments did not sound very satisfactory. They were not altogether to my taste at the time. But they are very familiar to a man who has acted with any party numerous enough to control legislative bodies."

Thanks to Shermans and McKinleys, they have remained familiar to Ohioans particularly; and, contrasting these trimmers and time-servers, plus the Grosvenors, Forakers, and Hannas, with Chase and Giddings and Wade, with Hayes and Cox and Garfield, one might well look in Prof. Monroe's pages for some sense of a cloud upon his "cheerful yesterdays." But we discern none, nor any evidence of self-restraint in forbearing to compare our present state with that earlier when, as the Italians say, times were better albeit worse—*Si stava meglio quando si stava peggio.*

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*The First Crossing of Spitsbergen.* By Sir William Martin Conway. With contributions by J. W. Gregory, D.Sc., A. Trevor-Battye, and E. J. Garwood. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1897. 8vo, pp. xii, 371, with maps and illustrations.

Spitsbergen was discovered by Barendszoon and Heemskerk in 1576, revisited and further explored by Hendrik Hudson in 1607, after which it soon became the seat of important fisheries of the whale and walrus. While these lasted, Spitsbergen was a busy and populous place during the summer months. Dwellings, storehouses, and try-works for boiling blubber were set up, and Smeerenburg, the principal place of resort, is said to have had a summer population of 18,000 people. By the middle of the seventeenth century the whales had been driven out of the waters adjacent to the island, the fisheries declined, and a few years later Smeerenburg was abandoned to ruin. About the middle of the eighteenth century Russian trappers from the Archangel district made the archipelago the scene of their activity, wintering in scattered huts, and, until the supply of bears and foxes, which formed the staple of their catch, was exhausted, they did very well. About 1830 the last of the Russians disappeared to return no more. They in their turn were succeeded by Norwegians, who now alone make these islands and waters the home of any industry. Sloops and cutters from Hammerfest and Tromsö still visit Spitsbergen in small numbers to secure mixed cargoes of anything which comes to hand, such as eider-down, seals, white whales, shark's livers, and occasional bear or walrus, but chiefly reindeer, the meat of which fetches a good price in Norway. Thus hunters of all the Northern nations have at one time or another sought Spitsbergen for industrial purposes, and, by their ruthless methods of extermination, have left it almost destitute of important animal life. At present it is a No-man's Land, annexed to no state and governed by no laws, without permanent inhabitants. There is no close time for bird or beast, the fisheries are unregulated, and the extermination of its fauna threatens to become complete.

The scientific exploration of Spitsbergen has been the work of the present century. Keilhau, a Norwegian, began the study of its geology in 1827, but the real originator of its systematic scientific exploration was the late Prof. Sven Lovén, who visited it in 1837. He was followed by Torell and Nordenskjöld in 1858, since which time Sweden has sent no less than nine scientific expeditions to the archipelago, while from England and Germany have come Lamont, Leigh Smith, and Von Heuglin. Most of the work was coastwise and but little exploration of the interior was attempted. Up to 1896 the interior of Spitsbergen was practically unknown; the island had never been crossed, and, from the best information he could gain, Conway was led to believe that, after passing a few miles of peripheral bogs, a general smooth area of snow would be found covering the main portion of the interior. The northern and southern portions of the island were supposed to be wholly buried under huge ice-sheets, and in the central portion, where many valleys were recorded as penetrating the hills, it was thought that easy access might be had to the hypothetical snow-covered plateau continuous to the eastern coast. Under this impression Conway provided himself with sledges and ponies to draw them—a combination which proved eminently unsatisfactory. The main object of the journey was to cross the island and reveal the character of its interior. The method originally proposed was that of striking across the island on two or three lines. After a few days' experience this was found impracticable. The intricate nature of the topography involved detailed study of a specific area, and this was successfully carried out.

The plans were approved, and the expedition subsidized by the Royal Geographical Society. A grant from the Royal Society enabled a geologist, Dr. J. W. Gregory of the British Museum, to be added to the party. Other members of the party were Mr. A. Trevor-Battye, known from his exploration of the Kolgulieff Island and as an ornithologist; Mr. E. J. Garwood, an expert mountaineer; and Mr. H. E. Conway, artist, whose industry is abundantly in evidence in the numerous illustrations of this volume. It happened that the Vesteraalen Steamship Co. of Norway undertook to establish a tourist service to Spitsbergen, including the erection of a small inn at Advent Bay. The author was able to engage transportation for the party, together with two Norwegian ponies, on the steamer which carried material for construction. They reached Advent Bay June 20, 1896, and here their inland explorations began. Almost immediately it was found that instead of hard rocks and frozen soil, capped inland by a continuous ice sheet, the region to be explored consisted of a congeries of hills composed of rotten and disintegrated material affording neither hand nor foothold. In various places large, nearly level, deeply crevassed glaciers impinged upon the valleys or lowlands, covered with a mantle of snow or slush which, under the continuous arctic daylight, maintained a semi-fluid condition calculated to allow the limbs of man or beast to penetrate indefinitely. From the deliquescent margins of these glaciers issued streams of water which spread out over the boggy lowlands, saturating them until they formed little more than a series of unbroken quagmires, with here and there a patch of sedges and other arctic vegetation. Unprovided with suitable snowshoes, or sledges appropriate to the conditions, our explorers floundered through mud, slush, and water with all the annoyances incident thereto. The record of their experiences appears to exhaust all conceivable aspects of the combination of mud, water, ice, men, and ponies. The tale, in fact, becomes wearily monotonous long before the record is exhausted.

To sum up, the party explored the region about Icefiord and its arms, Advent and Sassen Bays; crossed the island between Sassen and Agardi Bay on the west coast; ascended many hills, none reaching the minimum mountain height of 3,000 feet; and surveyed an area of about 600 square miles in a fashion sufficiently accurate for all practical purposes. Subsequently, in a little twelve-ton launch, they visited the northwest, north, and northeast shores of Spitsbergen, entering many of the fjords, and seeing the whole western coast of Northeast Land. On the 16th of August they sailed for Hammerfest, arriving in time to welcome Nansen back to civilization.

As a piece of literature, the book is overloaded with uninteresting personal detail, though it is a decided improvement on Conway's account of his work in the Himalayan region. It is difficult to make interesting a narrative in which the explorer is chronically up to his knees in mud and water. There are many sketches and a multitude of "process" pictures, mostly very similar to one another, and none of them strikingly picturesque. To accommodate them the book is printed on heavily weighted paper, which makes it impossible to read for more than a few minutes without a book-rest. The publisher has done his part handsomely, but the author needs lessons in condensation. A book one-third the size would have easily contained all the novel and essential facts, as well as a sufficiency of pictures. It would then have interested without wearying, mentally or physically. Books of exploration have of late been growing in size quite disproportionately to their intrinsic interest, and the present volume is an awful example. It is quite time somebody called a halt.

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*Johnsonian Miscellanies.* Arranged and edited by George Birkbeck Hill. 2 vols. Harper & Bros.

It is a curious fate that Johnson, the ostentatiously careless, the man impatient of "minute accuracy," as Boswell tells us, should have become the critical preserve of

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so painstaking and precise an editor as Dr. Hill. Everybody remembers how Johnson would not correct palpable errors in his Dictionary, when getting out the second edition, on the ground that he "would not flatter" the impudent fellows who had called attention to his blunders. In his Life of Savage he speaks with pitying wonder of that author's "superstitious regard to the correction of his sheets," and thought the anxiety with which he dwelt upon "the minutest and most trifling niceties" something almost uncanny—it "deserved no other name than that of fascination." For such a champion of the off-hand and the inaccurate to have fallen into the hands of a man who, after working three years on the elucidation of these two volumes, looks his labors over only to sigh, "What improvements could be made!" and to confess that "I have never yet finished an index without wishing that by the help of it I could at once reëdit my own editings"—for such an author to have become the chosen subject of such an editor shows what strange turns literary affinities may take.

Still, Dr. Hill might assert that he had found authority for his methods in his author. Writing of Addison, Dr. Johnson said: "Not to name the school or the masters of men illustrious for literature is a kind of historical fraud, by which honest fame is injuriously diminished: I would therefore trace him through the whole process of his education." But such a tracing through the whole process as Mr. Hill has done must have been beyond dreaming of in Johnson's philosophy. One can only think of the question which Mrs. Piozzi once addressed him: "Will *any* body's mind bear this eternal microscope that you place upon your own so?" The same microscope which Dr. Hill had turned upon Johnson in his monumental editions of Boswell and of the 'Letters,' is here applied in close scrutiny to the 'Miscellanies.' Under that name are included the "Prayers and Meditations" (carefully collated with the original manuscript in Pembroke College), Johnson's own bit of autobiography, the "Annals," Mrs. Piozzi's "Anecdotes," Murphy's "Essay on the Life and Genius of Samuel Johnson," together with a vast range of "Anecdotes," "Narratives," "Extracts," and "Apophthegms" derived from contemporary writers and diarists. All is beautifully printed and commented upon with what can only be called editing raised to the *n*th power.

Dr. Hill's method aims at both the convenience of the student and the delight of the reader. Swarming cross-references put masses of material before the inquirer and apt illustrations light up the page. Thus Johnson's boast of indifference to criticism at once leads our editor to give us in footnotes the views of Addison, Voltaire, Hume, Scott, and Darwin on the same subject. Chesterfield's not very Chesterfieldian phrase applied to Lyttleton, "a respectable Hottentot," sets Dr. Hill off on notes concerning the early use of that word in English—as if he were writing for Dr. Murray and the Dictionary greater than Johnson's. Besides correcting old material so as to make it almost as good as new through new accuracy, he gives us some unpublished matter (mostly letters) and some extracts from rare sources. One of especial interest to American readers was furnished the editor from Philadelphia, and was taken from a book not in the British Museum, Stuart's 'History of the Rise of the Arts of Design in the United States.' It is as follows:

"Dr. Johnson called one morning on Mr. West to converse with him on American affairs. After some time Mr. West said that he had a young American [Gilbert Stuart] living with him, from whom he might derive some information, and introduced Stuart. The conversation continued (Stuart being thus invited to take a part in it), when the Doctor observed to Mr. West that the young man spoke very good English; and turning to Stuart rudely asked him where he had learned it. Stuart very promptly replied, 'Sir, I can better tell you where I did not learn it—it was not from your dictionary.' Johnson seemed aware of his own abruptness, and was not offended."

Dr. Hill informs us that he turned aside from another task to edit the 'Miscellanies,' at the suggestion of Leslie Stephen. But as the other work was a contemplated new edition of Johnson's 'Lives of the Poets,' we may hope that Dr. Hill will now return to his first intention and thus complete his Johnson cyclus.

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*Hosea Ballou, 2d, D.D.*, First President of Tufts College. By Hosea Starr Ballou, Member of Rhode Island Historical Society, etc., etc., etc. Boston: E. P. Guild & Co. 1896.

Mr. Hosea Starr Ballou has brought together a great mass of materials out of which a skilful biographer might have made an interesting and effective story of the life of Hosea Ballou, 2d, but his own performance cannot be so estimated. Interesting his narrative is, but more in spite of the biographer than because of him, so little has he done to exhibit his facts in their due coördination and progression. He had an excellent subject, and has given us many incidents and traits, but they are not combined in any shapely presentation of the man or any adequate account of his most characteristic work, the starting of Tufts College on its honorable career.

Mr. Hosea Starr Ballou's connection with a number of historical and genealogical societies does not much profit him when he sets out to clear up his family pedigree. The line, so far as it is given here, is given confusedly. The founder was apparently Mathurin Ballou, a French Huguenot, who came to Providence in 1646, if not earlier. His Christian name, somewhat varied in the spelling, has been a favorite with his descendants, and to him it is not unlikely that they owe a certain tendency to be off with the old opinions and on with the new; else why did he cast in his lot with the "discordant band of anti-errorists" which gathered together about Roger Williams in the Providence settlement? That there was preaching in the blood as well as heresy is evident. "Father Ballou," the celebrated great-uncle of Hosea Ballou, 2d, had three brothers who were preachers. Hosea, 2d, was born in Guilford, Vt., in 1796. He had no college education, but studied theology with Father Ballou in Portsmouth, N. H. He began to preach before he was twenty-one, and in 1817 was settled as minister of the Universalist Church in Stafford, Conn., the only Universalist church in the State. His habit was not only studious, but scholarly, and in Roxbury and Medford he attracted to him many young men as special theological students—a method which had been much in vogue in all the New England sects and which had great advantages. We have an interesting chapter about these students, one of whom, Starr King, had for Dr. Ballou the warmest possible regard. Relating an imaginary visit to Gehenna he said, "Not daring to go alone, I obtained the guidance of Dr. Ballou, knowing that in his society I should be safe from evil spirits."

Dr. Ballou was very influential in helping on the formulation of Universalist thought, and in freeing it from the more obvious crudities which it had taken up from the doctrine of Father Ballou, and more especially from that of John Murray, who, not inaptly, might be called the grandfather of American Universalism. Dr. Ballou's principal contribution was a 'History of Ancient Universalism,' of which Origen was, of course, the figurehead. His scholarly reputation and his residence in Medford made it inevitable that, when Charles Tufts resolved to "set a light on that bleak hill" on which Tufts College now stands, Dr. Ballou should be used to initiate the enterprise. Moreover, he had been one of the most strenuous in the demand for denominational education. The story of his presidency has much of the pathos which inheres in all the small and brave beginnings of enterprises that attain to dignity and power. The contrast between those beginnings and the present standing of Tufts is well brought out. It was a happy fortune for the institution to have for its first President a man whose character will shed a benignant ray on its whole history, however long and honorable it may be. Many estimates of his character are given, some of them pardonably extravagant, while the most infelicitous is that of Dr. Oscar F. Safford, who says: "His name among Universalists is like that of Socrates in the world of letters."

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*Kajakmänner:* Erzählungen Grönländischer Seehundsfänger. Herausgegeben von Signe Rink. Berlin: S. Fischer. 1897. 8vo, 214 pp.

It would generally be supposed that if books by civilized people about Greenland and the Greenlanders were excluded, an account of Greenland literature would resemble the celebrated chapter on snakes in Iceland. We do not remember seeing, in any of the numerous works in which life in Greenland is described, any intimation that a printed literature, written by Greenlanders for Greenlanders to read, has ever existed. Previous to 1850, the only printed books in the Greenland dialect were of a religious or educational character—Testaments, hymn-books, primers, etc., with a few translations into Greenlandic of stories selected from European literature and suitable for reading-lessons. In the next decade the number of works of the latter class was increased, always with a view to their use in the theological training-school for natives at Godhaab. Only three really popular works were available for Greenlanders up to 1860, namely: Wieland's 'Oberon,' and the 'Holger Danske,' and 'Räst i Orkenen' of Ingemann, manuscript translations of which had been made and passed from hand to hand until they literally dropped to pieces.

The universal popularity of the ancient legends orally transmitted from one generation to another, of which a selection has been printed by the late Dr. Henry Rink ('Tales of the Eskimo,' with illustrations by native draughtsmen), indicated a taste for literature among the people, and in 1861 the

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first printing-office was established in Greenland. It was planned by Dr. Rink to print an annual volume, the work being done during the winter months, so that the bound copies might be ready for distribution when the season of navigation opened at the beginning of summer. Dr. Rink, being at that time Governor of South Greenland, had unusual facilities for carrying out the project. The Greenlanders throughout the region were requested to send in contributions, out of which the periodical should be made up, such as descriptions of their adventures, hunting by sea or land, or, in fact, original contributions of any kind. The publication was entitled *Atuagagliutit* (literally, "A means by which to induce people to read"), and proved a complete success, having now been regularly issued for thirty-five years. It is edited, illustrated, printed, bound, and published by one man, a native, Lars Möller Arkaluk, who is not unknown to travellers in Greenland. The annual is distributed gratis throughout the colonial administrations, which receive yearly from Godhaab a certain number of copies for distribution in their respective districts, in return for which voluntary contributions flow in to the editor from all parts of the country.

From these simple tales Madame Rink has made a selection, believing that it would have not only an interest for civilized readers, but also some scientific value, as an illustration of the first and only collection of independent Greenland literature, illustrating the lives, customs, and intellectual status of the present Greenland people in the manner of the tales published by her lamented husband respecting their less civilized forefathers. The work was originally written in Danish, but the German translation above cited will be more accessible to most readers. The book contains seventeen sketches or tales, all of which, notwithstanding their apparently Scandinavian authors' names, were written by native Greenlanders. Owing to the differences of construction between the two languages, an absolutely literal rendering was impracticable, but only such modifications have been made as would be necessary on this account, and obscure points are cleared up by the editor's foot-notes. We believe that Madame Rink's little book should find a welcome, not merely from ethnologists and psychologists, but also among those who enjoy the illustration of our common humanity wherever found, even among the glaciers of the frozen north.

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*The Chances of Death*, and Other Studies in Evolution. By Karl Pearson. Edward Arnold. 1897.

In two handsome volumes, amounting to more than 800 pages, that most militant of modern mathematicians, Prof. Pearson, keeps up the tradition of a certain class of scientists by making his modest contributions to omnisciolence. His topics are various, but they may be grouped under three heads. The first exhibit Prof. Pearson as the statistician and constructor of diagrams and frequency curves, and display a robust faith in his powers of manipulating a material which is proverbially treacherous and is often admitted by him to be qualitatively and quantitatively inadequate. His most suggestive results under this head are that 27 per cent. of the married population produce 50 per cent. of the next generation, that society at present recruits itself from below, and that consequently we are threatened with a survival, not of the fittest, but of the most fertile. He also has some interesting remarks on the woman question. Perceiving that the "new woman" cannot flourish unless she can get effective protection against the disabilities of childbirth, he holds there should be an outcry for "some form of national insurance for motherhood" (i., p. 253). This, however, he is confident woman will secure in the socialist state of the future, the inevitable advent of which he paints in the usual optimistic colors. He also defends woman against the attempt of modern biologists to deprive her of her proud preëminence in variability, and denies, on the strength of a laborious analysis of elaborate statistics, that man has been shown to be more variable—a result that should go far to rehabilitate the reputation for scientific accuracy and caution of the royal poet who declared that "souvent femme varie."

The essays of the second class are polemical, and are directed against the anti-scientific and anti-liberal doctrines, as the author esteems them, of Kidd's 'Social Evolution,' Lord Salisbury's British Association Address, and Arthur Balfour's 'Foundations of Belief.' It cannot be said that Prof. Pearson is at his best as a controversialist; for though he can hardly help making some points, he gets too angry with his opponents and is too liberal of abuse, and so in the end he by no means always succeeds in bringing out the enormity of their offences against the spirit of science. This last failing is perhaps most conspicuous in his attack upon Mr. Balfour, whom he takes to task severely for treating as a positive dogma of science what is merely a use of convenient conceptual formulas. No doubt "science" ought never to be more than a description of the concrete in terms of the abstract (for purposes of practical manipulation of the former), and should leave assertions about the ultimate realities which correspond to its formulas to metaphysics. But unfortunately, in ordinary life habitually and in science generally, we unwittingly turn our science into metaphysics, and so need a philosopher to point this out to us; in fact, it would not be altogether easy for Prof. Pearson to clear himself of the charge of sinning with the rest. Hence Mr. Balfour's criticism of the dogmatizing of the methods of science is by no means inopportune, while it must be considered a great mistake to give a political twist to the discussion of question-begging remarks about "reaction" and "the new bigotry." We suppose that when Prof. Pearson makes himself familiar—as for the good of his soul it may be hoped he will do speedily—with the very similar attitude towards the methods of science exhibited in Prof. James's new book of essays, 'The Will to Believe,' he will also resent, as a reactionary outrage to science, what is merely open-mindedness, and cannot by any possibility be brought into connection with the party strife of British Liberals and Conservatives.

In his third section, comprising the whole of the second volume, Prof. Pearson turns anthropologist, and discusses the traces of "matriarchy" and "endogamous group-marriage" among Aryan peoples. He is an ardent believer in the discovery of civilization by primitive womanhood, and draws a vivid picture of the early matriarchy, with its mother-goddess, communal life, and "sex-festivals." The evidence which he adduces for this state of things is derived partly from folklore—he argues that the *Mährchen* date back to such a period, and that the witch was but the degraded priestess of a superseded cult—and partly from philology. But though his researches are laborious and his arguments are frequently ingenious, he does not manage to keep clear of two fallacies which almost always beset the reasoning of his school. The one consists of the assumption that the ancient Aryans were savages, and that we have a right to expect to find in their language and customs "fossils" of truly primitive life. Yet it is quite clear that, geologically, the Aryans are a very recent stock of comparatively civilized warriors, and that an argument which ascribes to them the practice of general promiscuity less than 2,000 years ago proves altogether too much. Yet this is what Prof. Pearson does, *e. g.*, in his derivation of the witches' cats from their sacredness to the mother-goddess of matriarchal times, in spite of the fact that these animals were late importations from Egypt in northern Europe. And, secondly, we find also the assumption that the various forms of sexual relation must have succeeded each other in an orderly evolution, and cannot have coexisted. Judging by the facts of the present day, nothing seems more improbable—unless, possibly, it be the supposition that in a rude age the strong could ever permanently have submitted to be deprived of the exclusive ownership of their wives and children by a social prejudice in favor of promiscuity. The universality of matriarchy can never be established by sporadic traces of past promiscuity. We have no right to argue from the practices of the common people to the habits of the chiefs. And, inasmuch as the Aryans were a ruling race, and the "patriarchal" system was, as Prof. Pearson admits, more efficient and therefore survived, and since, moreover, there is such a thing as "reproductive selection," which in ancient times probably recruited society from above rather than from below, the anthropological evidence does not as yet really render untenable the view that modern man, with his decidedly monogamous instincts, is predominantly descended from the tribes, or classes within the tribe, which were always substantially monogamous in their habits. On the other hand, malice might suggest that the life of the minority and the interest taken by some in the *chronique scandaleuse* of anthropology afforded prima-facie proof of descent from the lower strata of early society.

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*The Out-of-Door Library:* Angling. Hunting. Athletic Sports. Mountain Climbing. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1897.

These four volumes are composed of thirty-two articles, by nearly as many different authors, that have appeared in *Scribner's Magazine* between July, 1887, and September, 1896. In most cases the illustrations have not suffered from the necessary change in size; the text is worth reprinting; and with large type, heavy paper, and an appropriate cover of dark green, the publishers have made an attractive set of books. Their title, however, is somewhat of a misnomer. They do not tell us how to fish, to hunt, to engage in athletic sports, or to climb mountains. They are not that much-desired series of carefully written monographs on the various phases of American out-door life, a second Badminton Li-

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brary prepared from the cis-Atlantic standpoint. They are best read at home, and need not be taken into camp. Mr. Rogers's adventure with the wounded grizzly, and Mr. Grant's capture of the tarpon—to cite two out of many equally interesting papers—can hardly fail to quicken one's pulse and kindle one's enthusiasm as he sits by his fireside. Yet the various chapters, with the exception of that on surf-bathing, do not render much assistance when one starts to put into experience the inspiration they have aroused.

This is particularly true of the volume on mountain-climbing. The nature-lover who reads Mr. Wilson's picturesque account of the birth of a snow-squall over Tuckerman's ravine, his description of the fascinating forms of the huge frost feathers that grow on Mount Washington, and the glories of the winter sunsets and the wondrous sundogs to be seen there, resolves forthwith to visit the "crown of New England" while it is adorned with its ermine robes. On perusing the chapter again, he is perplexed to find on page 5 that "it would be madness to make the winter visit at the present time, however, for the Government station has been abandoned, and there is no place of refuge there"; while on page 52 he learns that "a winter ascent should not be attempted without a careful guide." Nowhere is stated the essential truth that one unused to snow-shoes and unable to make both the ascent and descent in one day without excessive fatigue, has no right to be on the mountain in winter, whether a house of refuge is open or not. Since the signal station was closed the summit has been visited in midwinter by an increasing number of tourists, and the entire Presidential range has been repeatedly traversed by amateur climbers. The reward is great, the danger lies in the weather. Having some skill with snow-shoes, and a thorough knowledge of the range, a good walker can witness in safety a sunset from the summit any fortnight in the year, provided he has the self-control to turn back at the first indication of an approaching storm.

## BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors and Publishers: A Manual of Suggestions for Beginners in Literature. 7th ed., rewritten. Putnams. $1.75.
Barbèra, P. Ricordi Tipografici di un Viaggio agli Stati Uniti (Marzo-Giugno, 1892). Florence: S. Landi.
Clarke, M. Stories from the Arabian Nights. American Book Co. 60c.
Cook, Lady. Essays on Social Topics. London: Roxburghe Press.
De Garmo, J. M. The Hicksite Quakers and their Doctrines. Christian Literature Co.
Deussen, Prof. Paul. Sechzig Upanishad's des Veda aus dem Sanskrit Uebersetzt. Leipzig: F. A. Brockhaus.
Essays in Liberalism. By Six Oxford Men. Cassell. $1.25.
Ferry, Jules. Discours et Opinions. Tome V. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Field, Michael. Attila, My Attila! A Play. London: Elkin Matthews.
Garbe, Prof. Richard. The Philosophy of Ancient India. Chicago: "Open Court" Publishing Co. 50c.
Glanville, A. "An Eye for an Eye," and Some Reprinted Pieces. Chicago: A. Francoeur & Co.
Hubbell, Walter. The Great Amherst Mystery. American Publishers Corporation. 25c.
Jordan, Prof. D. S. Matka and Kotik: A Tale of the Mist Islands. San Francisco: Whitaker & Ray Co. $1.50.
King, Capt. Charles. A Garrison Tangle. F. T. Neely. 50c.
Kipling, Rudyard. The Jungle Book. [Outward Bound Edition.] Scribners.
Mather, Prof. F. J., jr. King Ponthus and the Fair Sidone. Baltimore: Modern Language Association of America.
Merrill, Prof. E. T. Fragments of Roman Satire. American Book Co. 75c.
Noble, Annette L. The Professor's Dilemma. Putnams. $1.
Norton, F. H. The Malachite Cross. F. T. Neely.
Piccinelli, F. Valori Pubblici e Operazioni di Borsa. Milan: Hoepli; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Piatt, Guy X. The Story of Butte. Butte, Montana: Standard Printing Co. 50c.
Pollard, Percival. Dreams of To-Day. Chicago: Way & Williams. 75c.
Radford, Dollie. A Light Load: Poems. London: Elkin Matthews.
Rambeau, Adolphe, and Passy, Jean. Chrestomathie Française. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Read, Opie. Bolanyo: A Novel. Chicago: Way & Williams.
Seton, William. A Glimpse of Organic Life, Past and Present. New York: P. O'Shea.
Speer, W. W. Elementary Arithmetic. Boston: Ginn & Co. 55c.
Stuart, Mrs. Ruth McE. In Simpkinsville. Harpers. $1.25.
Taber, H. M. Faith or Fact. New York: Peter Eckler. $1.
Tarr, Prof. R. S. First Book of Physical Geography. Macmillan. $1.10.
The American Chess Code. Revised ed. Brentanos. 75c.
The College of St. Francis Xavier: A Memorial and a Retrospect. New York: Meany Printing Co.
The Private Life of the Queen. By a Member of the Royal Household. Appletons. $1.50.
Thiery, Jean. Monsieur le Neveu. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Thomas, Bertha. Camera Lucida; or, Strange Passages in Common Life. London: Low, Marston & Co.
Tracy, Louis. An American Emperor: The Story of the Fourth Empire of France. Putnams. $1.75.
Warner, C. D. The People for Whom Shakspere Wrote. Harpers. $1.25.
Weld, S. F. The Eastern Question and a Suppressed Chapter of History. Boston; G. H. Ellis. 35c.
Wells, J. Oxford and its Colleges. London: Methuen & Co.
Wise, J. S. Diomed: The Life, Travels, and Observations of a Dog. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $2.
Zola, Emile. His Excellency. Macmillan. $1.50.

"One of the most interesting phases of the history of nineteenth-century Europe. The story of the Italian revolutionary movement. . . . Is full of such incidents as the novelist most desires . . . We have no hesitation in saying that this novel is one of the strongest of the year."—*The Dial*, on

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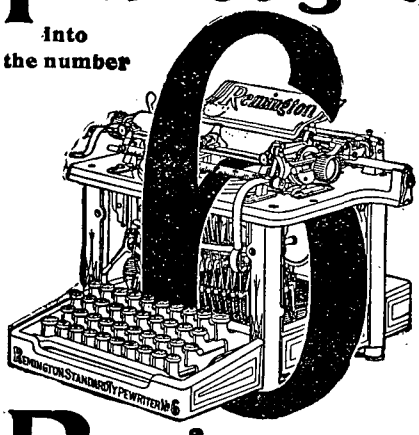


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